

# THE CLEARING HOUSE

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senior-high-school people

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## EDITORIAL

### EVALUATING OUR PROGRESS

At the close of the first half of the present school year, it seems appropriate to evaluate, as far as possible and practicable, the progress which has been made both as to individual pupils and groups of pupils in classroom, school, school system, and larger units.

Progress denotes the idea of moving forward, of making improvement, of an individual or group of individuals growing into those nicer adjustments of life in which are realized certain philosophies of an ideal life.

Such philosophies are manifested in a democratic ideal of government, in an ideal of a public-supported and public-controlled school system, in an ideal of family life in

which finest altruism is cultivated, in an ideal of business life in which the economic well-being of all the people is increasingly attained.

As we evaluate school progress in individual and group adjustments towards the achievements of desirable ideals, one of the simplest and most practical ways of sizing up all life activities is as *work* activities and *leisure* activities. People, by and large, including secondary-school youth, are either at work or at leisure. They are either at school tasks which primarily condition their fitness to do the work of the world, both as youth and adults, and mostly in wage-earning pursuits; or at school tasks which fundamentally condition their ability so to use their leisure or "off-working" hours that

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GALEN JONES, *Chairman*

thereby they may be re-created in body, mind, and emotions for the whole of their living.

As we consider the ideas of work and leisure, it seems well to emphasize the thought that the real difference between work and leisure "is largely a matter of attitude" as Mrs. Lillian Gilbreth expresses it. She believes, "Life, activity is a unified thing. Work and leisure hours are inseparable parts of it. Civilization results when we use both to develop skills and secure satisfaction. This thought is spreading all over the world."

Whether a person is at work or at leisure, he should value the activity *as such*, as well as evaluate it in terms of the benefits which may come of the activity. It is as important that appreciations or satisfactions should flow from work as from leisure. The conditions of work in all occupations should approach the ideal that while men are earning they also should tend to be living life at its best in terms of its highest satisfactions. Then a creative spirit truly enlightens work—whether it be an Einstein at his experiments, a Ford at his huge problems of business management, or a teacher at his daily round of classroom work. In considering educational values in terms of life values, work values and leisure values should be considered as a unity. Thinks Professor Dewey, ". . . the only ultimate value which can be set up is just the process of living itself. And this is not an end to which studies and activities are subordinate means; it is the whole of which they are ingredients." The real difference between work and leisure is, after all, "largely a matter of attitude."

May each and every one of the million school teachers of America understand and appreciate ever more and more fully the substantial unity of educational values in work and leisure. May each and every teacher realize in his own classroom ex-

perience happiest satisfactions in the process of teaching *in and of itself*, and may he receive a salary ever more commensurate with the high quality of his service. When each teacher has this unity of "appreciation" and "result" values in his own vocation of teaching, he will then, and then only, make such unity a vital force, a great civilizing, uplifting power, in the learning experiences of his pupils.

The world-wide economic crisis of today emphasizes the folly of separating work values from leisure values, of practical from so-called liberal education. Professor Henry C. Morrison in his review of Dewey's *The Way Out of Educational Confusion*<sup>1</sup> remarks, "Time was when the two [liberal and practical objectives in education] were indeed inseparable and when the so-called 'practicable subjects' might be challenged as having any place in the program at all, save as at university level they were included in the form of professional training. Social progress has changed all that. The learned professions have multiplied, and all vocational activity is tending to become, if not professionalized, at least intellectualized. It follows that the distinction between the liberal and the practical has become well-nigh obliterated."

P. S. L.

The National Advisory Committee on Education, composed of many eminent men and women prominent in education and social service, has published its report in two volumes. Volume I sets forth the Committee's majority report and the reservations of the minorities. The Committee's work, subsidized by the Julius Rosenwald Fund, has been in progress for over two years. Its far-reaching recommendations thus represent the considered reflection of competent and carefully selected educational leaders.

The report treats of the difficulties of edu-

<sup>1</sup> *The School Review*, XL, 1, January 1932, p. 67.

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cation in territories, outlying possessions, and in special Federal areas; in teaching the Indians and other indigenous peoples; in training governmental personnel; in proper Federal research and information services; and in international intellectual relations. In each of these matters, conditions are described as found and recommendations are made as to how they may be bettered. Among these is a recommendation for setting up a "Federal headquarters for education" which would serve both as a center of co-operation for the educational work of all Federal agencies and as a reliable source of comprehensive, accurate data on education for all concerned. A truly comprehensive program!

Nevertheless, the practical schoolman who is interested in the improvement of secondary education rather than academic studies about it and the Federal subsidization of the futilities which are at present entrenched in its curriculum and administration must be bitterly disappointed at the Committee's proposals. Only on the premise that the traditional academic curriculum is superior to any probable innovations can one justify the use of Federal subsidies to the State to help school districts teach more Latin and algebra and "history" and "science."

Fortunately, it is probable that nothing will come of the report except that it will be assigned to college classes in education for reading and reports. Neither Congress nor the country is in the mood to expend large amounts of Federal money for local boards of education to spend according to their whims and without oversight or check from any Federal agency.

It is regrettable that a constructive and feasible program as well as a comprehensive one has not been set forth. Coördination of the many Federal agencies which now are charged with educational activities is needed. Such coördination is not to be obtained by setting up a research and reporting and accounting bureau and giving it the high sounding title Department of Education; an impotent Secretary of Education sitting in the President's cabinet could be nothing but a joke. Except for special educational administrative units; e.g. Indian education, etc., he would represent nothing; his only function would be that of political representative of a group of researchers and accountants who would compose his "department" and a public apologist for their activities. As well set up a Department of the Census with a Cabinet Secretaryship of Census!

P. W. L. C.

## PROGRESS OF THE MOVEMENT FOR TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

E. G. BLACKSTONE

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. E. G. Blackstone is in charge of commercial-teacher training at the University of Iowa. He is an outstanding leader of the testing movement in business education. He regards it a faulty school policy to discourage "able students from taking commerce. Wise administrators are discovering that able students going out of the commercial department into the offices of influential business men in the community constitute an excellent means of winning better support, not only for the commercial department, but for the entire school."*

P. S. L.

**C**OMMERCIAL tests, in the form of contests in typewriting and stenography, were probably the first significant movements in test construction in the field of business edu-

cation. They were sponsored, it is true, by publishing houses and equipment establishments, largely for the purpose of increasing sales and only partly for improving



commercial teaching, but they have proved to be useful in stimulating the construction of other and better tests as the years have passed. In these contests it was quickly realized that subjective, essay-type questions could not be administered satisfactorily, hence such tests were abandoned—a promising step forward.

The contests did not prove to be entirely satisfactory, for it was soon recognized that a speed and accuracy copying test in typewriting failed signally to measure all the essential abilities requisite in a good typist, and that concentrated attention on speed and accuracy tended to overemphasize those points, to the relative exclusion of other essentials. Consequently there began to develop the idea of battery tests which should attempt to measure all the significant factors in the occupation of typewriting. In the field of bookkeeping, Mr. Paul A. Carlson, of the Whitewater, Wisconsin, State Teachers College, quickly realized that all of the needed bookkeeping abilities could not be measured by a single test of journalizing, for example, and instead he prepared comprehensive battery tests. In commercial law similar comprehensive tests appeared, later to be followed by elaborate tests in junior business training and other subjects. At present, most textbooks are accompanied by diagnostic tests, either in separate pads or combined with workbooks. The first progressive step, then, use of objective devices, was followed by the movement for comprehensive objective tests.

During the same period, educators, who were interested in test construction, were learning much about refinements of statistical procedures in constructing tests in arithmetic, reading, and in the field of intelligence testing. They were evaluating various types of test questions and discovering difficulties in completion forms, true-false forms, and some others. They were learning that tests must be reliable, that

is, give the same results when given again, that they must be able to provide evidence as to what a test measures—validity—rather than to assume that it measured what they wanted it to measure. They were learning how to weight questions of unequal difficulty, and how to weight the several sections of a test so as to provide maximum prediction. Little by little as these procedures were made available they were adopted by commercial educators and the makers of tests for commercial subjects. While they are not fully appreciated as yet by all commercial teachers, it is true that such tests as have recently been issued for commercial occupations by the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration rank up well with any tests in any other fields.

That commercial teachers are alert is indicated by the fact that over a hundred tests have been constructed; some devoted to prognosis, some to diagnosis of difficulties, and many to measurement of achievement. Of course some were faulty, they were certain to be, but such tests were soon exposed. For instance, it has been recognized for some years that many students enroll for shorthand although they have little possibility of success. Students and administrators often fail to recognize that shorthand is hard, ordinarily having a failure list as high as for any other high-school subject. At least a dozen attempts have been made, therefore, to construct tests which can be administered to students before they start shorthand, to determine whether or not they have reasonable possibilities of success. In shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping, valuable diagnostic charts and tests are available to help the teacher to determine the points of difficulty of individual students so that remedial instruction on those points may be provided. In the field of achievement testing, astonishing progress has been made so that in some subjects dozens of tests are available, and there is hardly a single com-



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mercial subject for which there is not at least one test provided. Not all these tests are adequate, but the mere fact of extensive activity is promising and points to the preparation of more adequate tests as time passes.

Intelligence tests are extensively used, there being even some such tests for determining "business intelligence." Probably it is here that real, though negative, contributions to testing are most common, for the results of such tests when compared with success in school and in business have pointed out the fact that intelligence-test scores may be overemphasized. It has been shown that certain traits are as important as, or even more significant than, superior intelligence in business success. This has emphasized, therefore, the need for direct attention to trait development, a field in which commercial education is probably ahead of other high-school departments because of an earlier start. Such information points out, too, a faulty policy often followed by school administrators; that of discouraging able students from taking commerce. Wise administrators are discovering that able students going out of the commercial department into the offices of influential business men in the community constitute an excellent means of winning better support, not only for the commercial department but for the entire school system, and are attempting definitely to steer able students with a bent towards business into commerce rather than into other fields. Probably the business man who hires a graduate of the commercial department judges the high school chiefly from the impression made upon him by that worker. He has few other contacts with the school from which to draw conclusions. If he finds the worker well trained in techniques, full of desirable traits, eager to be of use, and capable of earning promotion, he is likely to come back to the school for more workers and positively to support the

school. Probably more superintendents should recognize the possibilities here.

Another progressive step in business tests has been the recognition of the need for criteria for testing the tests. In some academic subjects, and commercial subjects as well, tests have been prepared and used with no attempt to determine whether or not they really measure significant factors. In business testing it is becoming common to compare the test scores with the scores made by successful business workers in the occupation tested, so that the teacher may know what achievements are essential and to what levels of speed, accuracy, and the like training must be given. Perhaps it is fortunate that the business department, at least, has agencies to check up on its products, because where the teacher is the sole judge of the quality of work done he may, if he desires, be too easily satisfied and no one may know it. With the business man to check up on the commercial teacher, progress tends to be more probable. Perhaps this factor has had much to do with the rapid development of valid testing devices for business subjects.

Mention has been made of early contests in commercial subjects. For a long time they were limited to picked teams of contestants and were necessarily limited in usefulness to the better members of the class and were probably of no aid to the poorer students or even a source of discouragement to them. A few years ago there started a movement to have every-pupil contests, a plan which has much to recommend it. Under this plan all students in participating classes take part, in their own schoolrooms, and class averages are used to determine the winners. This encourages a spirit of coöperation, encourages even the poor students to do their best, and eliminates certain problems of expense and social difficulties in traveling to other cities. When to the idea of every-pupil or mass contests shall have been added the idea of comprehensive tests of all the significant

factors in a subject rather than speed and accuracy alone, new levels of commercial testing and of contest work shall have been reached.

Much credit must be given the commercial teacher. He is ordinarily heavily burdened with classes, having more papers to correct than most other instructors; he carries a heavy burden of extracurricular activities; he finds his department sometimes looked down upon by uninformed academic teachers, and still he has managed to gain and keep the respect of parents and business men, to improve his curriculum, his textbooks, and his teaching methods, to initiate a program of trait and character development, and in addition to prepare an elaborated set of testing devices. He has

done this almost unaided, for his superintendent is ordinarily untrained in commerce and few States have provided supervisors to help him. Nevertheless, his department is probably the most popular one in the school. Wise administrators are beginning to seek information about his work and how best to help him administer his department. His period of pioneering is past. Henceforth, he may devote his energies to refinements, and to perfection of details; and tests, as they develop and improve, will be very useful tools to him. Administrators can help him a good deal by a liberal attitude when he asks for funds to purchase, for use in his classes, supplies of the better tests that are now on the market and that will appear with the progress of time.

## A COÖPERATIVE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM IN ECALPON

EARL W. BARNHART

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Earl W. Barnhart in his long and successful service as chief, Commercial Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D.C., has had a nation-wide experience in dealing at first hand with supervisory programs—and also with lack of them, as far as business education is concerned. He describes in this article in a very personal way his ideas of coöperative supervision. He believes that the success of such supervision primarily "turns upon social intelligence, not . . . upon supervisory techniques of the scientific professional kind, unleavened by human understanding."*

P. S. L.

### I

**T**HE notebook of a very discriminating textbook salesman contains the following items, among others, for the year 1928 about the teachers of typewriting in Ecalpon:

*Miss Dulcie:* Z School. Two classes beginning typewriting, also business English. A.M. degree from Smithburg, major in English literature. No training for commercial subjects. Given overflow class in typewriting during war because of success in business English. No business experience. Follows text slavishly, corrects every paper during class periods; results poor, criticized by other teachers. Proud of her Mayflower descent. Talks much about cultural and mental disciplinary value of typewriting; popular with pupils; unadjusted

socially and economically; growing cynical about modern life and teaching. Hobbies: Browning and New England family history.

*Miss Doty:* Z School. Has 2 classes advanced typewriting, also office practice. Two years Makem Normal; 1 year Blau Business School. Office work during war. Pupils have won several contests. Drives pupils; high standards; fails many; criticizes other teachers of typewriting, also school superiors; thinks public-school commercial courses poor; scoffs at college methods courses and educational psychology. Weakness: her success as a typewriter teacher. Talkative, social, will go out. Movie favorite: Tom Mix.

*Mrs. Penn:* X Junior High School. Three classes in typewriting. B.S. in Education from Bucknell. Half year in Baltimore University School of Commerce. No business experience; wants it; expects to go to summer school until she gets Sc.M. Fair re-

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sults; works hard; no disciplinary troubles. Best junior-high-school classes in city. Country background. Opposed to using phonograph. Interests, married daughter's family; *Atlantic Monthly*.

*Miss Abie:* M Senior High School. Two classes advanced typewriting, other subjects vary. M.A. in commercial education, Connecticut University. Uses no text; follows own ideas; constantly changing; quotes Book, Thorndike's laws of learning. Disciplinary troubles with pupils; fails many; exacting. Knows all literature on typewriting, thinks most is no good. Very ambitious to be a department head. Wants everything free to be had. Displays work of best pupils; thinks she gets too many low I.Q. students. Interests: philosophy, music, school.

*Mrs. Zeta:* O High School. First year here; 3 beginning classes in typewriting. B.A. in commercial education, Iowa State University. Working for Sc.M. degree in summer. Attended Teachers College last year; different school each summer. Took typewriting methods courses from B.J. & S. Thinks all have some good ideas but not progressive enough. Trying to use projects in beginning work—uses every text available. Nervous; married; husband working for Ph.D. at Ore University. No business experience; Iowa farm background. Wants to be a teacher of commercial education in a university. Expects to get Ph.D. degree for research in typewriting now being carried on. Reads many professional journals. Hobby: educational research.

II. An extract from the report of the district manager of the Zone Text Book Company to the home office after a visit to Ecalpon in 1928, where a number of textbook adoptions are under consideration:

The committee on typewriting texts is composed of Principal Evird, chairman, Miss Abie, Miss Doty, Miss Dulcie, and Mrs. Penn. Miss Abie is opposed to adopting any text at this time, claiming that teachers should be free to use whatever text they find most effective for them to use. She claims that none of the texts has been based upon established principles of learning psychology, especially as set forth by Dr. Book. She claims that the text now in use is being used by only a few teachers in the city, since each teacher has managed to get enough of different texts to enable her practically to ignore the present adopted text. Miss Doty strongly favors the adoption of the Wor text because she used it when attending the Blau school. Miss Dulcie wants to retain the text now in use

largely because she likes it and because it was written by a local teacher. Mrs. Penn wants to have a special text adopted for the use of the junior-high-school typewriting classes. This proposal is being strongly fought by practically all the typewriting teachers in the senior high school. Principal Evird privately favors our text but at the last meeting of the committee declared he has no choice. This committee has held many meetings, but so far no motion for the adoption of a text has even got a second. Principal Evird does not want publicly to support any text.

Miss Doty and Miss Abie are bitterly hostile to Mr. Evird and will fight tooth and nail against any text he appears to favor. Neither of them has forgiven him for not recommending her to succeed him as department head when he was elected principal. He is not on good working terms with Miss Dulcie either because she knew he was always opposed to her continuance in the commercial department when he was head.

The inability of this committee to agree upon a text, even after many meetings, is reflected in the attitude of all the teachers in typewriting. The resentment of the typewriting teachers in the junior high schools at the criticisms of the typewriting teachers in the senior high schools about poor teaching of typewriting in the junior high school was openly voiced at a recent meeting of the junior-high-school teachers association when the commercial group openly voted to support Mrs. Penn in her stand for a separate text for the use in the junior highs. The senior-high-school teachers are talking of calling a meeting of their own to demand that the textbook committee select a book best adapted to training high-speed operators. Some of the teachers in both groups are very much wrought up over the situation.

I had a long talk with Mrs. Zeta. She has been urging Principal Evird to appoint a committee to make a scientific analysis of the typewriting texts to be selected for examination by the typing-text committee which, of course, would include our text. She refused to consider, as representing the kind of analysis she thought ought to be made, the summary of our text which I showed her and the comparative table of all the leading texts which I had prepared. She is not very clear as to what constitutes a scientific comparative analysis of typewriting texts; but she said that at a recent Iowa conference on research in commercial education a report on such an analysis had been made, but unfortunately she did not have a copy of the bulletin in which this appeared. As she is a recent graduate of Iowa State University she has acquired a good



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speaking acquaintance with all the terminology of educational scientists. Principal Evird has been much impressed by her and is inclined to give her ideas much weight, largely because he knows only a little about typewriting or about what she talks, since he is primarily an accounting teacher who has not taken any professional courses in commercial subjects.

I saw Superintendent Lissos yesterday. He is satisfied with . . . but expressed his disappointment at the slow progress of the typewriting-text committee. He had heard of the friction which has developed and is annoyed at Principal Evird's lack of success in getting a satisfactory report. I urged Dr. Lissos to postpone action on typewriting texts for a year. That will give us a better chance to work with more teachers and permit the present friction to die down. Apparently some one has been talking to him about teaching typewriting with the use of dictaphones—but I soon spiked that idea. We will have the following adoptions here. . . . Typewriting is very doubtful.

III. Letter from Principal Cimedaca of O High School to a young professional friend, written June 1928.

MY DEAR JOE:

I understand that there is likely to be a new commercial department head in the Z High School here next year. If you still want to come into our school system, you may be interested in applying for this place when it is vacant. However, all this is very confidential, and I have no authority to say what may happen. I will keep you informed so that you can begin to make proper plans. Of course, you may count upon my help.

While I am telling you what may happen, I am not at all recommending that you come into our school system via this position, if it is open. The conditions in that school and in our entire commercial-education program are very disquieting.

From what I hear, the situation in the commercial department of Z High School is extremely bad. I think Principal Evird left just in time to avoid an explosion. When head of the commercial department, his methods of class visitation, rating teachers, conducting department meetings, dictating use of teaching materials, and class methods apparently had driven his teachers into smoldering subordination. He apparently knew little about the gentle supervision which diffuses a pleasant feeling throughout the department. He attempted to rate his teachers, using a so-called scientific scale he read about in a magazine; and,

in addition, claimed to judge his teachers largely by the results of the examinations he required and the percentage of pupils they promoted.

He was continually trying to get certain teachers transferred out of the department or school. Among them Miss Daphne Dulcie, a very estimable teacher from one of our finest families, who was trying to put a little leaven of spiritual light into our commercial department—a most worthy and deserved objective.

I heard that one of his teachers, a Miss Doty, was so angered at his *snooper* activities that she put up a job on him which was Machiavellian in character. As this story illustrates what a clever teacher may do when driven to desperation, I am going to tell it to you for it is too good to keep.

Mr. E frequently undertook to teach classes in order to show the teachers how they should teach specific points. You can imagine how some of them felt when his procedure looked like an attempt to show up the teacher to the pupils.

One day Miss D announced in one of her typewriting classes that a certain kind of problem in office typewriting would be taken up the next day. Then, when she came to school she told Mr. E that she was teaching a certain kind of practical problem that day which she thought would interest him. When he came into the room, as she expected, she was directing, in a way she knew he did not like, a speed drill he believed was very valuable. When he saw how Miss D was handling the class, he said that she was all wrong and that he would show her how the drill was to be presented. When the drill had been done to his satisfaction, he asked the class what was the next point to be covered in the day's program and plunged ahead to teach that without knowing what was involved. As a result, in a little while he was lost and unable to go on, for he had to admit he did not know the procedure necessary for solving the assigned problem. I heard that the pupils gave one great loud laugh as he went out of the door. I understand he did not even dare to report the incident to the principal. So there is a lesson for you as an aspiring department head.

When Mr. E was appointed principal of the O High School he succeeded in having a Mr. Rotatim elected head. Mr. E influenced Mr. R to continue his methods. As the new head, Mr. R attempted to force all his teachers to use only the adopted texts. I have been told some openly refused, others ignored his demand. He continued an attempt to rate his teachers by using the results

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of objective tests and the percentage of pupils failed and given low grades. As many of the advanced classes had received pupils who had been promoted, regardless of standards, by teachers who wanted to make a good showing on the rating scheme, many of the good teachers were rated low by Mr. R and they protested most vigorously.

Following Mr. E's plan, Mr. R has been having frequent teacher meetings, but has found it necessary to compel attendance by calling the roll and rating low all who did not come. He has tried having demonstration classes at his meetings but often he has taken charge and tried to show his teachers how they should teach. I am not going further with some of the practices which have been used. These will be enough to show you what you should know. They explain why the conditions in that school are now such that I would not want any of my friends to be found in that den of lions, even a Daniel like yourself.

Have the brothers in . . . held any alumni meetings recently?

IV. January 1929. From the Report of a Curriculum Revision Specialist to the superintendent of schools at Ecalpon.

The members of all committees, except those on commercial subjects, have been appointed. In the opinion of the principals committee, the commercial teachers were very much opposed to any kind of group work and the principals unable to agree upon the committee personnel, so we have not yet been able to get suitable committees appointed. There seems to be no high-school principal or department head who can take the lead in the commercial-subject committee. The principals cannot agree upon the personnel of the different committees on aims, on course of study production, on revision, on tryout, which we need to have. Principal Cimedaca said that committees of commercial teachers who will work together cannot be secured because whenever a good group of teachers for one committee is selected, then the dissatisfied teachers in the next group will try to sabotage all the first group produces.

In view of the inability of the principals to select proper personnel for these committees and to direct these studies to be made, I am recommending either that the revision of the commercial program be not attempted at this time—although since over forty per cent of all the high-school pupils are enrolled in commercial courses, it seems to be too large a part of the program to omit—or else that you appoint a city supervisor of commercial education, who can take full

responsibility for the work of the various committees. . . .

V. June 1929. From the recommendations submitted to the personnel committee of the board of education by the superintendent of schools.

*Recommendation 8.* Redael Puorg to be city supervisor of commercial education. Salary group C-2. This is a new position, but the budget provides the salary funds necessary. Comments: Mr. Puorg is being recommended primarily because of his ability to serve as a leader among commercial teachers in all the different high schools in the city; and only secondarily because of his extensive business and teaching experience and training. Those members of the committee who interview Mr. Puorg are asked to consider his attractive personality and his apparent social intelligence as being his most important qualifications. As his most important duties will be to get the commercial teachers to work harmoniously together and to develop coöperation between commercial departments and the business employers in this city, I have put effectiveness in social relations before academic training.

VI. June 1931. Some paragraphs from the first annual report of the city supervisor of commercial education to the superintendent of schools.

5. *Curriculum-revision committees.* The plan for selecting the personnel of these committees and for managing the committee meetings as outlined by me and approved by you under date of September 5, 1930, has been successfully followed. At first there was some reluctance to participate in the meetings, but after a few conferences all committee meetings have been well attended. At present there are twelve committees at work on objectives, course of study production, teaching procedures, and measurements for all the subjects included in the curriculum-revision plan. The attached organization charts show the name, purpose, and personnel of each of these committees. The program for this year is limited to the junior and senior high schools only. As soon as satisfactory courses have been outlined for these schools, the curriculum revision for the junior college, the continuation, and the evening schools will be taken up in the order named.

Attendance at the scheduled committee meetings was checked for the first three months. Since my recommendation that this practice be stopped

was accepted, the attendance has not fallen noticeably. We will average better than 90 per cent for the entire year. Considering the large number of teachers involved and the number of meetings, this is a satisfactory showing.

The committee on objectives in typewriting has tentatively outlined an excellent report, one likely to be regarded as a real contribution to the teaching of this subject. Under the capable leadership of Miss Dotty, some excellent work has been done in the committee in stimulating teachers to undertake a careful study of the outcomes of their instruction both in quality and quantity. While Miss Dotty herself is not much interested in using measurement procedures, she has stimulated the members of her committee to make the most careful analyses of their objectives and has not discouraged the use of objective measurements. Miss Dulcie, one of our older teachers, is now making an analysis of the meaning of culture as an outcome of typewriting and of the kinds of social training possible in a typewriting classroom. Mrs. Penn with the help of Mrs. Zeta is now making a study of the relation between I.Q.s obtained with the Otis Group Tests and attainments in typewriting in the junior high school. Two junior-high-school classes will be studied this year and those from these classes who enter the senior high schools next year will be followed up. The data for this study have not yet been compiled.

In June this year Miss Abie asked my permission to give a city-wide test in typewriting using some special test material. After the nature of this test had been explained to the typewriting committee, this group voted that it should be given to all typewriting classes in the city and that on the following day one of the monthly tests used by the typewriting companies be given also so as to enable comparisons to be made. Miss Abie managed all the details of this extensive study most excellently and has gathered so much data that she will not complete her report before September.

Mrs. Zeta is also making a splendid study of the relation between reading ability and typewriting achievement. Miss Abie has outlined for next year a promising study of the trait-training procedures which can be used in the typewriting classes. Most of these excellent studies and others that are described hereafter have been the direct outcome of the successful committee conference this year.

9. *Supervisory visits.* I have requested all department heads to discontinue supervisory classroom visits except those necessary for aiding

teachers in carrying out the program of studies now under way. After a conference with department heads, the rating system formerly used has been discontinued. I have made few classroom visits other than those necessary for helping the teachers engaged in making special studies. During the past two months the number of requests for help of this kind has been greater than I could find time to fill.

12. *Professional improvement.* I have taken up with the extension division of the State university the possibility of having the division offer professional improvement courses for commercial teachers here next winter. Much of the committee work now being done should entitle the teachers to advanced degree credit. I am certain that teachers will be glad to enroll in courses which are so conducted as to be of service to them.

Several of our teachers are planning to attend summer schools. Miss Dotty is expecting to go to Teachers College largely because she wants to take a course in educational measurement as applied to commercial subjects. I have recommended that she also take a course in educational psychology. Mrs. Penn and several other teachers have made arrangements to work in some of the coöperating offices here so as to get practical office experience.

#### L'ENVOI

When supervision is regarded as the fine art of leading teachers, not driving them, the goal of supervision as stated in the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence will be attained as far as possible with any group of teachers: "the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically free from the control of tradition and actuated by a spirit of inquiry."

Supervision requires contacts with individual teachers whose past backgrounds, education, social and professional attitudes must be recognized as controlling factors in their responses. Only those supervisors who are socially intelligent enough to know how to handle the diverse kinds of human beings found teaching in our public schools will be successful in organizing and conducting a coöperative supervisory program.

When supervisors are selected for their



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social intelligence and for their ability to guide teachers in making productive professional studies, then coöperative supervision programs will be developed, not only in commercial subjects but in all fields where socially competent leaders are chosen.

Coöperative supervisory programs are the goal in all school systems, but the success factor turns upon social intelligence, not upon unbalanced professional training or upon techniques of the scientific professional kind unleavened by human understanding.

## THE AIMS OF THE COMMERCIAL OFFERING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

L. A. RICE

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Louis A. Rice is assistant in secondary education, State Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, N.J. His special interest is business viewed not merely in terms of certain vocational skills, but also thought of as comprehending those broad, basic economic considerations by which business has become one of the most dynamic forces of our modern life. He believes that every "pupil in the junior high school should learn to do well those business activities which the experience of the race shows he will have to do anyhow; he should learn the meaning of business so that he can intelligently decide, with proper guidance, whether he desires to continue his training with a more immediate business occupation as his objective."

P. S. L.

WHEN the junior high school was instituted, one of the early procedures was to steal all of the senior-high-school commercial subjects and put them into the curriculum. Disastrous results were soon experienced with shorthand, commercial law, salesmanship, advertising, and economics because they were taught as senior-high-school subjects, according to senior-high-school methods and standards, and from senior-high-school textbooks. The next step was twofold: some of the schools returned the more difficult subjects to the senior high school; others attempted to reorganize certain of these courses into subjects within the junior-high-school range of accomplishment. The misstep has left its influence, however, especially with regard to book-keeping, which clung for many years to the ninth-grade curriculum. I find in talking to some junior-high-school principals that they are afraid they will not be giving commercial work unless they teach these more advanced subjects.

The next stage was to reorganize many of the academic subjects, which the jun-

ior high school inherited from the upper grades of the grammar school, with special regard to more practical application for those pupils who in some mysterious way were herded into the commercial curriculum.<sup>1</sup> These subjects became commercial arithmetic, commercial English, commercial history, and even commercial Spanish and commercial French. Nobody attempted commercial Latin, although the study of Latin was recommended as an aid to commercial English.

Neither of these plans was productive of lasting beneficial results. Educators found it difficult to harmonize the aims of either group of subjects with the aims of the junior high school, if indeed these subjects had any definite aims at all. A few able individuals then began to examine critically the content of the commercial curriculum in order to determine just what things were teachable to and practicable for pupils of junior-high-school age. There emerged, in

<sup>1</sup> *The Junior High School Curriculum*, Fifth yearbook. (Washington, D.C.: N.E.A. Department of Superintendence, 1927), chapter XVIII.

various forms, the subject which we know now as elementary business training, and it is significant that almost all of the textbooks at present available for that subject have appeared within the last twelve years. This step marked the beginning of actual commercial-curriculum construction for the junior high school.

A common error in the earlier statements of aims, and one which is entirely too prevalent even at the present time, was the practice of stating objectives in terms of subject matter, for the ends of subject matter, with the result that the pupil was adjusted to the subject matter instead of the courses being planned for the pupils. The objectives of the junior high school and the objectives of commercial education in the junior high school will have to be stated in terms of the learner, worked out in terms of the learner's activities, and their success measured in terms of the learner's progress, if they are to play an important part in modern education.

What, then, are the commercial offerings supposed to do for the learner in the junior high school? In reading any statement of aims, each of us applies those aims to the situation in which he works. Counts has stated that the difficulty in realizing the aims of secondary education as they have been stated in the past is largely due to our failure to define the type of society in which they are to function.<sup>2</sup> Certainly commercial subjects must make their contribution to more wholesome living by the pupil. Proctor has restated the aims of secondary education in order to make their applicability more practical. He gives them in terms of adjustments the pupil must make: physical, mental, social, economic, aesthetic, and ethical and spiritual adjustment.<sup>3</sup> Every sub-

ject, then, which has a place in the junior-high-school curriculum must make its contributions to each of these adjustments. There is no doubt that the study of business subjects makes such contributions, although these contributions are greater in certain of the adjustments than in others. It is unfortunate that we have to separate the aims of educations in any statement of them, for no one aim can be accomplished without helping or hindering the accomplishment of all the other objectives, and coördinated progress is likely to be most worth while for the child.

There are certain fundamental business principles which every child needs to know, because his daily life as a child as well as his later life as an adult are affected by them. Some of these principles are economic, others are matters of business custom and law, still others are matters of the learner's social adaptation to existing policies in the transaction of business. Every child will transact business either as a consumer or as a producer, probably as both.<sup>4</sup> It is evident, therefore, that instruction in such business materials should be given impartially to every junior-high-school pupil. An excellent example of a common business principal, generally taught, is thrift.

Too often thrift consists of merely one or more lectures on the value of saving as a means of keeping the wolf from the door, and then a periodic passing of the hat for a collection of such loose nickels and dimes as may be available. The teaching of this subject may be enriched both extensively and intensively. The extensive enrichment of this topic would in part consist of finding new reasons for practising thrift; devising plans for better motivation of saving; organizing a school bank or other agency to provide facilities for daily banking at any hour; planning a system of awards to classes

<sup>2</sup> G. S. Counts, *Secondary Education and Industrialism*. Inglis Lecture. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1929).

<sup>3</sup> W. M. Proctor, "A Re-Statement of the Aims of Secondary Education in Terms of Adjustment," *JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE*, October 1929.

<sup>4</sup> H. Harap, *Economic Life and the Curriculum*, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927).

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making the best showing; indicating by means of posters and graphs the progress of the savings campaign. The intensive study of thrift would show that thrift is but another name for scientific management in business, that some of its synonyms are efficiency of production, careful buying, elimination of waste, conservation of resources, and the provision for depreciation; that business cannot exist without these things; and that the manufacturer who fails is usually outstripped by his more thrifty competitor. Correlations could be made with a large number of experiences and topics in the development of this phase of economic education. The criterion of the success of thrift teaching might better be the attitude of pupils towards elimination of waste of time and school supplies, and their attitude towards school property, rather than the size of the total of school savings in the local bank.

By teaching such business principles from the broader viewpoint we open up to the pupils the vision of what business really is. This is commonly referred to as the "exploratory function" of the junior high school. It is necessary that such courses be handled by teachers of the widest business training and experience. Not only must the instructor lead the way in the development of the broad view of business, but he must also be on the alert to detect and encourage evidences of special interest on the part of the pupil and to guide him intelligently in the further pursuit of the objects of his interest. Sometimes junior high schools purport to provide exploratories for business through typewriting or the manipulation of various office appliances. It seems that this is a very narrow view indeed to take and that such a procedure is likely to result in misleading the pupil and probably in misguiding him. The success of the exploratory objective can best be measured by the success of the pupil in his selection of further

educational courses; it is a test of guidance as well as of good commercial teaching.

It is quite likely that the major factor in the success of any individual in business life is his ability to adapt himself to the business employment situation by which he enters business and to govern himself according to the regulations and customs of the business in order that he may integrate his work efficiently with that of the business organization of which he is a part. With respect to this, the public school has always taken too much for granted. We have assumed that if a person knew a thing he also knew enough to apply it. Proctor, in his restatement of aims above referred to, says of the average prescribed course in civics: "The assumption apparently is that a knowledge of governmental machinery will make law-abiding citizens. This is akin to another fallacy; that a knowledge of the number of bones in the human body will make healthy citizens." He might have added that ability to type or to fill out a form is likewise no guarantee of success in business. Some time ago a senior-high-school teacher told me of a case which illustrates this point. Her school had placed two graduates with an important concern in the community for stenographic work in one of its branch offices. At the same time a third graduate of the same school, but one whom the school would not have cared to recommend for such a position, obtained employment through another agency with the same firm. The teachers were aghast at the thought of the effect of this poorer worker on the school's reputation with the employment department of the concern. A year later the unrecommended one had been promoted to assistant manager of the branch office and had supervision over the work of her better trained contemporaries. An investigation showed that while this third girl had not achieved much in stenography and typing in school, she possessed considerable executive ability and a dynamic personality



which was just what that firm wanted for contacts with its customers who came to this branch office. She couldn't do stenography, no—but then there were her better trained classmates to do that part of the work.

In more recent years, we have come to depend upon participation in extracurricular activities to develop desirable social behavior. The results have not, however, always been satisfactory. Many a business man has been badly deceived into employing a member of a college football team for a position requiring tolerance, willing coöperation, and an attitude of give and take, only to find that the practice of these qualities on the gridiron was the result of servile obedience to the mandates of a "hardboiled" coach, and that when placed upon his own initiative the employee had little conception of the value of these qualities or of how to utilize them. Proctor continues: "The truth is that social and civic adjustments are achieved by practice and experience in typical social situations." The junior high school, then, must create such situations to give actual practice and training in those social qualities which business demands. This will probably result in the utilization of business situations within the junior high school itself for practical application of business principles and social relationships. We must not forget that the junior high school itself is a going business concern.\*

Vocational training has always been a moot question in junior-high-school objectives. Most of the statements of aims have included it, but not many schools have given it. Many high-school principals have opposed it out of deference to academic tradition. Before proceeding further with the discussion of vocational training, it will be well to clarify our terminology and examine some of the objections. To begin with, voca-

tional preparation of junior workers does not mean preparation for senior business vocations. This is not generally understood, particularly by those who think in terms of their disastrous experiences with the senior-high-school commercial subjects which were once introduced into the junior-high-school curriculum. Whatever preparation is given should be for junior commercial occupations. There are a number of surveys and analyses which rather clearly define the duties of these positions. Much of the preparation for them, however, consists of improved mastery of the fundamental processes of arithmetic, English, writing, and spelling, and training in desirable business behavior. Perhaps a better name for these materials is "prevocational" rather than "vocational" education.

It is interesting to note that the elementary business-training course may be made to serve some of the purposes of prevocational training in the junior high school and at the same time prepare pupils adequately for the work of the senior high school. Some technical training is also necessary, particularly typewriting. It seems desirable in teaching such technical skills to make use of the best methods which have been devised for their mastery. Much of the undesirable criticism of the junior high school would be eliminated by abolishing the practice of "playing around" with certain definitely technical subjects where the learning factors have been analyzed and reorganized into efficient plans of attack upon the subject. If "economy of learning" as a junior-high-school objective means anything, it certainly means this. Cox in his recent book states that pupils can learn typing readily without "stupid, abstract drill"; such drill, or, to give it a name which describes it more accurately, precise practice, need be neither stupid nor abstract as the work in a number of schools evidences.

In an ideal junior-high-school situation, I

\* Lomax and Haynes, *Problems of Teaching Elementary Business Training* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1929), chapter III.

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presume it would be impossible for the pupils not to want to go on to senior high school. Experience, however, indicates that we are far from that stage at the present time. Recently I visited a junior-high-school class in which there were thirty-nine pupils, thirty-three of whom were certain that they would not go on to the senior high school. Should not the teachers proceed just a little differently with this group than if the thirty-three were going on to senior high? It is not the purpose of the junior high school to force vocational training upon any one; it is not its purpose even to offer the option of vocational training to those who can and will go on to the senior high or the vocational school; but to those who will not go on it offers a chance for a little better type of position, a little higher pay to start, a little easier job so that subsequent education in the continuation school or the evening school does not become burdensome. Cox defends this position and even goes further. He states that the school should find out "what seems to employers to be the needed equipment for rapid promotion. Once determined, the school should offer prevocational commercial practice, permitting interested pupils to work individually, in small groups, or in classes for half their school time to obtain practice in the needed skills and knowledges."<sup>6</sup>

A word in passing regarding the articulation of junior-high-school commercial education with the other units of the school system. The junior high school should not seek to give a cheap imitation of senior-high or vocational-school courses; it is probably not advisable for it to give even a part of the more advanced work, except possibly the first year of typewriting; it should give a broad foundation of general business practice, business organization, and elementary economic principles, upon which the school

of the pupil's subsequent years can build.

There are many who are shocked at the thought of teaching economics or economic principles in the junior-high-school grades. We must remember, however, that the principles of economics affect everybody and that many people are poignantly aware of many of the applications of these principles in their own lives. One has only to read the *New Russian Primer* as translated by Dr. Counts to see clearly that it is possible to put economics into nontechnical language. The fault has not been with the subject matter but with the way we have treated it.

In summary then, the pupil in the junior high school should learn to do well those business activities which the experience of the race shows he will have to do anyhow; he should learn the meaning of business so that he can intelligently decide, with proper guidance, whether or not he desires to continue his training with a more immediate business occupation as his objective; he should learn the principles of adaptation of conduct so that he may be able to make the necessary social adjustments in his business contacts; those whose immediate future indicates a pressing need of vocational training should not be deprived of this help. Throughout, the recognition of the pupil as an individual, with all that the principle comprehends, must be paramount. It matters not, then, what the arrangement of grades or what changes may be made in the organization of the junior high school as we now know it. The adolescent will be capable of certain levels of learning; his needs must be taken care of; subject matter must be adjusted to him as an individual; his progress as an individual must be guided, tested, and followed up. Business endures forever with civilization, and its fundamentals must be understood by those who hope to keep abreast of the times. The adjustment of these two concepts with each other will always provide the current objectives of business education in the junior high school.

<sup>6</sup>P. W. L. Cox, *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929), chapter XVI.

## BUSINESS EDUCATION AND SCHOOL LIFE

HERBERT A. TONNE

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Herbert A. Tonne is a member of the New York University department of business education. He is also an associate editor of The Journal of Business Education. He sees the social sciences and business education as closely allied divisions of knowledge. Indeed, business should become a larger phase of the social sciences, even as the latter, particularly economics, should become the "flesh and blood" of business techniques. He asserts, "Certainly business is as important a phase of our present life as is science. The problems of business are even more important as far as human progress is concerned."*

P. S. L.

THE purpose of this article is to present an evaluation of the present purposes and nature of business education in secondary schools in terms of the ultimate values of secondary education in general.

Business education in the high school can be justified in terms of two major purposes:

1. To give definite vocational preparation for business occupations to those students who expect to earn their living in this type of work.

2. To give all students an ability to use the services of business in making their life more satisfactory.

It must not be assumed that all of this work is to be or can be accomplished through the formal classes in business subjects. Much of the task must be undertaken in more general school life. Nevertheless, the primary responsibility should be given to the teachers of business subjects. The tendency of these teachers to confuse the dual purpose of business education in the high school with a consequent mediocrity of result is the thesis of this article.

### WHEN IS A SUBJECT VOCATIONAL?

In a certain sense, all school subjects that are educationally justified are vocational. That is, if they help us lead better lives in general, they will also probably help us lead better business lives. English and arithmetic are good examples. Therefore, in order to give the term significance, we must limit it to those subjects which are specifically vocationally valuable. In spite of the imperfect dividing line between the vocational

and nonvocational values of a subject, the differentiation in many cases is of prime importance. Quite often, to the detriment of clear thinking, nonvocational values are offered as the major purposes of subjects distinctly of a vocational nature; and contrariwise, definitely vocational values are suggested for courses of study which have only the most incidental vocational value, merely because of their placement in the same curriculum with a group of vocational subjects.

### THE TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTED VOCATIONAL BUSINESS COURSES

In the last century, entry to business was secured by most business pupils through skillful use of one or the other of the two office techniques, bookkeeping and stenography. Training in these techniques soon found its way into the high school. Since then the business courses in high schools have tended to remain static, but business has changed tremendously. Bookkeeping and shorthand are by no means any longer the only means of entry to business life for most boys. In fact some authorities feel that such courses are not as satisfactory as a good general education. As a consequence about two thirds of the students enrolled in high-school business courses are girls. Even for girls it is now doubtful whether stenography and bookkeeping are the only satisfactory paths to business life. Office-machine skill, filing, general clerical ability, and executive skill are often quite as helpful and in some cases even more satisfactory bases for success in business life.



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How then does the typical teacher of business subjects justify his position of giving clerical education and calling it business education? How does he justify himself in training most students for two office occupations when there are dozens which now require trained technicians?

### THE STATED PURPOSES OF TRADITIONAL BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Bookkeeping teachers, and to a lesser extent stenography teachers, now frankly realize that the vocational efficiency of their subjects is on trial. When almost no study shows that more than ten per cent of those who took bookkeeping in high school actually have or have had specific bookkeeping positions, these teachers may well look around for other reasons to rationalize the value of their work. Bookkeeping teachers are now often quite proud of the academic nature of their work. Among the purposes given in teaching bookkeeping, the following were found given in the prefaces of several textbooks:

1. To study bookkeeping records and reports as an aid to better management of business enterprise.
2. To give students the ability to secure positions as bookkeepers.
3. To give students the ability to interpret and analyze business papers and records as users of business services.

Are these purposes entirely complementary? That is, does the development of one of these purposes help to build up the ability of a student in achieving the other purposes? A straight line is the shortest distance between two points. If we wish to understand the management of business enterprise, why not give a course aimed directly at that objective? Courses in business management and organization are given in a few high schools, but the number enrolled is negligible in comparison to the number enrolled in bookkeeping. Similarly, if we wish

to give students a better understanding of business from the point of view of making them better users of the services of business why do we not give them that training in a course set up for that purpose? Indeed, we have already organized a course in elementary business training for the junior high school which has this as its special purpose. Because of the vocational value of bookkeeping to only a limited number of students, it would seem that bookkeeping teachers, in order to justify the maintenance of the existing courses of study, have set up somewhat diverse aims for their work, none of which is adequately attained. Unconsciously they have set up a confusion of purposes which makes it possible for them to rationalize the continuance of work which life conditions no longer justify.

### THE CONFUSION OF OBJECTIVES

This confusion in the purposes of high-school training for business has been noticed by others. Malott has keenly observed that:

Many factors have contributed to the confusion between social-science and vocational objectives. First, there is a need in the social-sciences for more economic and business content.<sup>1</sup> Second, in the selection of content for the commercial subjects it is necessary to begin where the social sciences cease. Adequate preparation for office and store positions requires considerably more content bordering on the social sciences than is ordinarily included in the core of those subjects. Preparation for commercial occupations requires the application of much of the social-science content to the performance of specific duties. Third, there is much similarity between many of the vocational activities and those of everyday life. Some of the vocational content and common skills taught in the commercial subjects have everyday utilitarian and social values, but these values are incidental by-products due to the nature of preparation for commercial occupations instead of arbitrary planning. It is obvious that the present problem of differentiating social-science content

<sup>1</sup> Henry Harap, *Economic Life and the Curriculum* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927).

from the vocational content is fully as important for social science as for commercial education. A solution of the problem is essential to permanent progress in commercial education.<sup>3</sup>

On this basis then, it would seem desirable that bookkeeping as a formal specialized skill subject preparing for the bookkeeping occupation must be greatly altered and its enrollment much reduced. Enrollment in such subjects as junior business training and business organization should probably be greatly increased.

#### SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING

Stenography has been much more efficient than bookkeeping from a vocational point of view, but even here many students who take the subject make no vocational use of it. It is true that many teachers of the subject rationalize themselves into the position that the students get marginal values out of the subject, such as increased ability in the use of English. This is possibly in some measure true. If, however, the students who make no vocational use of stenography took work which prepared directly for increased ability in the use of English the result could probably be attained more rapidly and more efficiently. The question is not one of absolute values but rather one of relative values. Therefore, it would seem wise to undertake a more careful program of selection so that only those students take stenography who, we are reasonably sure, could and would make vocational use of their training.

While typewriting originally was a strictly vocational subject, its scope has changed so completely in the last decade or two that it no longer can be classed as such. There are so many nonvocational uses for the subject, and there is so much appeal in the subject for many types of students that its general extravocational life value is significant to

far more people than is its vocational value. On this basis a semester, or even more, of the subject might reasonably be offered to all who are interested. The students who are not interested in the subject vocationally might in the larger schools be organized into classes separate from those who expect to achieve vocational efficiency, but this is hardly possible in smaller schools and may not even be necessary or desirable.

#### GENERAL CLERKSHIP AND SELLING

If we reduce, or at least reorganize, the work and enrollment in the two major vocational business subjects in the high school, what shall we put in their place? If it is granted that business is a major element in our social life, surely it is worthy of a major place in our high-school programs of study. On the vocational side there is need for greater attention to two important groups of business occupations to which the school has been giving relatively little attention. The first of these is general clerical work. Far more workers in business are general or nonspecialized clerks than either stenographers or bookkeepers. In the past we assumed that the bookkeeping curriculum gave these people an adequate type of preparation. In fact, in many schools, the bookkeeping department still is called the business department and the bookkeeping curriculum still is called the general business curriculum. These prospective general clerical workers should be given preparation differentiated from that of prospective bookkeepers.

It might be desirable to set up a course in office practice in the senior year of high school which as far as possible would duplicate real office conditions. In these classes students would learn office practice in such a way that they would be thoroughly acclimated to it when they secure positions in business offices. For those who show special aptitude, it would seem desirable to of-

<sup>3</sup> J. O. Malott, *Commercial Education, 1924-1926* (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Education, 1928), Bulletin No. 4, p. 5.

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fer short intensive courses in preparation for the more usual forms of specialized office machines, such as the various calculating, bookkeeping, and duplicating devices.

In addition to these general clerical workers there is a vast army of men and women in business engaged in various forms of selling. The secondary school makes little definite preparation for such work. It is possible, however, that relatively few of the students in high school are able to secure selling positions immediately upon graduation for which vocational preparation can be given. If this is the case, it might be desirable to give the task of vocational preparation for selling entirely to the collegiate school of business and parallel institutions.

### NONVOCATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION

More important than any of this specialized skill training or vocational business preparation is the pressing need for more consideration in the secondary school of general or nonvocational business life. Not all of us go into business, but all of us do use the services of business and live in the environment that business creates. Fundamental to this nonvocational business training is the newly developing conception of elementary business training. The recently published New York State syllabus on Introduction to Business, organized for presentation in the ninth grade, is an admirable example of this tendency. Its purpose is to give a real understanding of what business is, how it functions, and how it serves both the individual and society as a whole. This course may readily be made a unit in the core curriculum. Certainly business is as important a phase of our present life as is science. The problems of business are possibly even more important as far as human progress is concerned. Why not then give every student a nontechnical understanding of the place of business in contemporary life, even as we give a course in general

science to develop a realization of the contribution of science to our civilization?

In the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years we might give more detailed attention to this same problem for those who are specially interested. In the tenth year we could devote the time to economic geography, in the eleventh year we might offer work in marketing and business organization, and in the twelfth year attention might be given to law as a control element in business life, and economics as a course to integrate the various aspects of business life treated in previous grades.

This type of work should not be set up as having definite vocational value. Students should not be given the false impression that it is specialized job training. It is of value in business to be sure, but only as English and arithmetic are valuable. As we pointed out in the beginning of this article, if the term vocational is to have any significance it must be limited to those subjects which are set up to meet the needs of particular wage-earning pursuits.

### TRAINING FOR "DROP OUTS"

Vocational work parallel to this general business training could be offered in the twelfth grade and if necessary even in the eleventh year. To an increasing degree this vocational work is being looked upon as primarily intended for the "drop out," or pupil who will not become a high-school graduate. Postgraduate high-school courses in vocational business training have become very popular in the last few years in New York City and other communities. Some students of the problem feel that the postponement of vocational work is undesirable for those students who find it necessary to leave before high-school graduation and who are then left without vocational business training—that entering wedge which is so necessary for admission to business life. This difficulty can readily be overcome by



setting up special vocational skill courses to which students could be sent for intensive training whenever they found it necessary to leave school. Such training might be given either in special vocational schools set up for that purpose, or in a specialized division of the regular high-school organization.

#### CONCLUSION

In summary then, we might state that the traditional high-school business courses in bookkeeping and stenography no longer adequately meet all the needs of secondary-school pupils who enter business life. This traditional work should be reorganized and

supplemented by other vocational training so as to increase the direct efficiency of the high-school vocational business training. Even more important than the vocational business training is the nonvocational or general business education which is tending to receive greater attention in secondary schools. If specialized vocational business training is given after or, where necessary, in some degree parallel to the general or social business education, such training will tend to function more satisfactorily for the student, inasmuch as he will be in a more likely position to make immediate job use of his newly acquired vocational skill.

#### CITIZENSHIP ASSEMBLIES

L. R. DELONG

*EDITOR'S NOTE: In this article the writer describes an actual experience in visiting a school assembly, where he found an easy, natural, and wholesome procedure in the selection of student officers. Dr. DeLong is director of teacher-training extension in Pennsylvania State College at Harrisburg.*

L. B.

**A**T THREE O'CLOCK on the afternoon of September 24, 1931, I entered the imposing new West Junior High School building of Binghamton, New York. Pupil guides were in the corridors to observe the passing of their classmates and to welcome visitors. I was directed to the rear of the auditorium where a student gave me my choice of seats in the last three rows. I noted that about thirty other adults, mostly mothers, had arrived.

Down in the orchestral pit fifty-four students were tuning up their instruments. The gong sounded, the orchestra went into action. I expected to see the students walk in double file to the sound of music. I was happy, however, to note that there was no marching and that the orchestra apparently served the same function as it did in a first-class theater of New York City. The entrance of the students was informal. Some of them were conversing quietly. All seemed

to appreciate the fact that the orchestra was covering up their entrance and that the music was to be enjoyed rather than to be used for marching.

There were eleven vacant chairs on the platform. The ten candidates for the five offices seated themselves in them. The lady principal arrived.

The audience arose to sing the Crusader's hymn of *Fairest Lord Jesus*. The principal read the One Hundred Third Psalm, "Bless the Lord, oh my soul." Everybody participated in the Lord's Prayer.

The principal arose to make a three-minute speech. "We have 1,200 pupils in West Junior. This a small city. We have thirty-four citizenship groups or homerooms in which we discuss the needs of the school. Our student council is composed of the presidents of these rooms and five general officers. We are here today to hear from two candidates for each of these general offices.

## CITIZENSHIP ASSEMBLIES

This is a very serious task which we have to face. These ten candidates have been selected carefully by you 1,200 pupils. It has been hard to select ten candidates when there are so many who might equally well have been selected. It will be still more difficult for you to select the five people from the ten seated on this platform whom you, individually and collectively, believe are best fitted to be our general officers.

"We select the general officer from the seventh grade, our vice president is selected from the eighth grade, the secretary, captain of the guards, and president are selected from the ninth grade. We will now hear from the candidates."

The candidate for captain of the guards, who successfully won the election the following day, was Myron Perry. His father was born in Italy. Myron said, "It is not difficult for you to see that this is my first political speech. A good citizen has a wholesome respect for law. The guard captain must have the good will of all. He cannot be partial to his friends. He is not to be feared, but should be respected."

The boy who failed election stated, "The only approach to high office is through effort. The captain should keep up the morale of his men. If I am elected there will be an honor patrol each week of two men per floor. In addition I will try to make the whole guard an honor patrol."

I have known candidates for the superintendency of school systems before now who wondered why they were not selected. I wonder if it was because they promised in detail exactly what they would do if they were elected instead of covering up their program by wholesome platitudes and generalities.

The candidate who was elected to the position of secretary, Jane Larrabee, both of whose parents were born in the United States, in her campaign speech exclaimed, "What a privilege it is to be a candidate for

the high office of general secretary. I fully realize the duties and responsibilities. One must be careful to maintain neat, accurate, and efficient minutes, perfect in detail, open to the examination of any student or teacher. I promise to try to the best of my ability to live up to your expectations in case I am the successful candidate."

The successful candidate for general officer, Robert Tate, whose father is a plumber, solemnly declaimed, "The people who have so much confidence in me to place me in nomination for this important office have my sincere gratitude. The general officer is required to have a knowledge of the law. He must take the place of the president or any other officer who is absent. I was president of my last year's class and on the *Courier* staff." He made his bow at the end of two minutes.

The most important attribute of any general officer, thought the visitor, is time sense. Time sense is credited with bringing success to the present premier of France.

The girl candidate who was not selected for the office of vice president advised, "I have taken an active and interested part in many school activities. . . . My only hope is that each organization shall have benefited because I was a member of it."

Up rose Rexford Titus, whose father is an attorney, and said, "One week ago we celebrated the first birthday of our school. We are very proud of it. Last year I was permitted to assist in building a part of its reputation as vice president of my home-room. I was also a member of the leader's group. I am very proud of the fact that I have had such good health as would permit me to be perfect in attendance during the last six years of my school life. I will strive to be as regular in attendance upon the work of the student council." Rexford was elected vice president.

The unsuccessful candidate for president presented as his platform a strong desire to

serve. Said he, "I am not a politician, therefore find it difficult to express appreciation to those who have supported me in making me a candidate. If elected I will do my best to return opportunity to you as you give opportunity to me."

The successful candidate for president, James Aldrich, whose father is principal of a high school and whose mother teaches in a junior high school, said, "It is difficult to really repay West Junior for the opportunities we have to enjoy life here. I find myself a candidate to serve as president. There are many students equally or more able, but there are none more sincere."

The next day as I was being escorted by the director of English, Mrs. Elizabeth Landon, on a tour of observation of English classes, we found ourselves passing through the rear of the auditorium at the Christopher Columbus Junior High School. As we entered, a thirteen-year-old maid of Irish descent, Eva O'Brien, whose parents are both teachers of music, ordered the rest of the newly elected officers in that junior high school to arise. She gave each of them, in turn, the oath of office as fealty to the school was sworn. When the first and second vice presidents, secretary and treasurer, the deputy of girls, the deputy of boys, the physical director, and messenger had all been sworn, each of these officers in turn swore their cooperating officers from each of the different rooms. The president swore in the presidents of the homerooms, the first vice president swore in the first vice presidents, the messenger swore in the room messengers. The nationalities reported as general officers were of Irish, Jewish, Italian, Greek, and English descent. There were three Italians and two Greeks. We tore ourselves away regretfully as the lady principal was expressing her joy and the desire of herself and her teachers to cooperate

with the newly instituted student council.

I drove back into Pennsylvania the next day reflecting upon the great changes which have taken place in providing opportunities for junior- and senior-high-school students to practice the art of self-government within the school buildings. I made a little resolution that I would tell my Pennsylvania colleagues of this expert work in citizenship so successfully being exemplified in our adjoining State.

Two weeks later I found myself driving past the Upper Darby Senior High School located ten miles from Philadelphia. On a sudden impulse I entered the building. The principal, John Tyson, greeted me and said, "Come on in to the sophomore assembly. We will talk afterwards."

Was it chance, I wondered, that when the curtain arose I should see seated upon the platform the student council of that school? The senior-class president arose to explain to the sophomores in this three-year senior high school the importance of the work of the student council.

When the president had finished his three-minute talk he summoned the officers before him. As they stood, one member from each group stepped a pace forward and four of the group took the oath of fealty to perform the duty to which they had been summoned by vote of their classmates.

As I resumed my motoring I could not help but wonder how many junior- and senior-high-school organizations there are in the United States which are exemplifying similar developments in modern education through citizenship assemblies. What are the various techniques used? How long have these institutions practised the art of building citizenship habits through citizenship assemblies? What remedial changes have been instituted through the successive years?



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## THE COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

BANCROFT BEATLEY

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the third article in the series dealing with reports of important national committees. Dr. Briggs is editor of the series.*

*Professor Beatley, of Harvard, writes that he has had the benefit of personal interviews with two members of the Committee: Dr. Charles H. Thurber and Dr. Paul H. Hanus. Dr. Thurber, now a member of the firm of Ginn and Company, was associate professor of pedagogy at the University of Chicago in 1899, when the report was presented. Dr. Hanus was professor of education at Harvard. According to Dr. Hanus, the moving spirit in the work of the Committee was Dr. Thurber.*

F. E. L.

IF CONTENTMENT with one's lot in life is increased through the knowledge that others in the past have had more cause for complaint, secondary-school principals who now struggle with the problem of preparing pupils for colleges with varying admission requirements should be sublimely happy. If college entrance requirements today may be said to present a difficult problem, surely conditions in 1895 may aptly be described as chaotic. At that time, the College Entrance Examination Board did not exist; the Carnegie "unit" was yet to be born. Each college defined its requirements within a subject field minutely as it saw fit. A course of study in a foreign language designed to meet the requirements of College A could hardly at the same time be expected to meet the requirements of College B; to say nothing of Colleges C, D, E to N. And so in the other subjects as well. Colleges in 1931 may disagree as to the number of units which they prescribe and the type of units which they will accept, but there is at least a degree of uniformity in the meaning of two units of a foreign language, a unit of ancient history, or a unit of a laboratory science. Even that amount of uniformity did not exist in 1895.

The Committee on College Entrance Requirements was one of the agencies which contributed in important ways to the improvement of the articulation of secondary school and college. The Committee had its inception at the Denver meeting of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association in 1895. At this meeting, Professor William Carey

Jones of the University of California read a paper entitled, "What Action Ought to be Taken by Universities and Secondary Schools to Promote the Introduction of the Programs Recommended by the Committee of Ten?" The discussion of this paper led to the establishment of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements—a joint undertaking of the Department of Secondary Education and the Department of Higher Education. The original committee of ten members was enlarged to thirteen, of whom six were either principals or supervisors of public high schools, and seven were university professors. Of the latter, four were professors of education. The make-up of this Committee stands in striking contrast to that of the Committee of Ten in which the secondary-school representation was largely drawn from private schools and the college representation from fields other than education. The most active members of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements were Dr. Charles H. Thurber, then associate professor of pedagogy at the University of Chicago and editor of *The School Review*; Dean James E. Russell, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Paul H. Hanus, Professor of Education, Harvard University; Mr. George B. Aiton, State Inspector of High Schools in Minnesota; and the chairman, Dr. A. F. Nightingale, Superintendent of High Schools, Chicago.

The first work of the Committee involved a detailed analysis of the requirements for admission to candidacy for the bachelor of arts, bachelor of philosophy, and bachelor of



science degrees in sixty-seven representative colleges and universities. This analysis was undertaken by Dr. Thurber and published as an "unofficial preliminary report" in *The School Review* for June 1896. The material was presented in tabular form in such manner as to make possible a comparison of the detailed requirements of different institutions in the same subject field. A perusal of the sixty pages of tables in this issue of *The School Review* will readily lead to the conviction that the problem of meeting entrance requirements today is simple as compared with the problem thirty-five years ago.

In a second preliminary report published in *The School Review* for June 1897, Dr. Nightingale, chairman of the Committee, expresses his views of the then existing requirements in this lamentation:

Why must a boy read *The Plague in London*, *The Flight of a Tartar Tribe*, and Macaulay's out-of-date *Essay on Milton*, and be refused credit because, forsooth, he had read Bryce's *Commonwealth*, Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, and Carlyle's *Heroes and Hero Worship* instead?

A young man took the examination for Yale University. The quality of his Latin was not criticized, in quantity he had read more than the requirements called for, but he was conditioned on a certain book of Caesar which some good instructor had spared him from reading. How long before the science of pedagogy will reveal to college instructors that written answers to technical questions do not test the strength and growth of a pupil's intellectual abilities!

How long indeed?

The Committee was hampered in its work by lack of funds. It was not until three years after its appointment that the National Education Association provided financial support. The amount of assistance—five hundred dollars—while not large, was sufficient to enable the Committee to meet for a three-day session at the University of Chicago in the spring of 1899. Meanwhile, the Committee had secured the coöperation of the American Philological Association, the Modern Language Association of America,

the American Historical Association, the American Mathematical Association, and the Natural Science Section of the National Education Association. These associations had appointed committees to draw up requirements for each year of secondary-school study in their subject fields.

The final report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was presented at the meeting of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association at Los Angeles in July 1899 and published in the *Proceedings* of the Association. This report included not only detailed recommendations on college entrance requirements in the various fields of academic study, but also a set of fourteen resolutions presenting the general conclusions reached at the conference in Chicago. The Committee adopted nearly all of the recommendations of the committees appointed by coöperating associations. The detailed recommendations of these committees are appended to the Report.

Of the fourteen resolutions which the Committee presented, three stand out as especially significant:

- I. *Resolved*, That the principle of election be recognized in secondary schools.
- VI. *Resolved*, That, while the committee recognizes as suitable for recommendation by the colleges for admission the several studies enumerated in this report, and while it also recognizes the principle of large liberty to the students in secondary schools, it does not believe in unlimited election, but especially emphasizes the importance of a certain number of constants in all secondary schools and in all requirements for admission to college.
- XII. *Resolved*, That we recommend that any piece of work comprehended within the studies included in this report that has covered at least one year of four periods a week in a well-equipped school, under competent instruction, should be considered worthy to count towards admission to college.

The Committee did not seek to define uniform college entrance requirements as a whole. It recognized the need for the differ-

## COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

ent colleges and technical schools to define their requirements in terms of the curricula provided. The Committee sought rather to define units of secondary-school study which could be combined in varying ways in the entrance requirements of the several colleges. Thus the Committee laid great stress on the establishment of national norms in each subject field. The equivalence of units was to be secured through equivalence in time. Thus, a year's study of history for five periods per week was set forth as equivalent to a year's study of plane geometry for five periods per week. The normal load for secondary-school pupils should be four of these units per year.

The Committee sought further to win acceptance for the view that, within limits, secondary-school pupils should be permitted to undertake a preparation which would permit them to develop their individual talents. The limits to which freedom of election should go were indicated by the suggestion that certain units should be constants in the requirements of all colleges. These units were English (2), foreign language (4), mathematics (2), history (1), and science (1). The four units in foreign language might be in a single language or divided into two units in each of two languages, but no entrance credit should be allowed for one unit in a foreign language.

Some of the other recommendations of the Committee are of interest in view of the subsequent history of secondary education, though these recommendations, unlike those already presented, were not the result of extended study on the part either of the Committee or the committees of the cooperating associations. These recommendations were: (1) that the requirements for technical schools should be as extended and thorough as those of colleges; (2) that secondary-school teachers should be college graduates; (3) that a six-year high-school course provided in a single building should be considered favorably; (4) that gifted pupils

should be encouraged to shorten the period of preparatory work; and (5) that the school day should be lengthened in view of the greater value of class instruction as compared with home study.

The Committee further called attention to the confusion then existing with respect to the meaning of the terms *program of studies*, *curriculum*, and *course of study*. The definitions proposed are those which are in common use today.

In concluding its report, the Committee regretted that it had not been able to deal with the problem of methods of admission to college and that the reports on the several subject fields represented varying degrees of thoroughness. The Committee asserted its belief that, in spite of these shortcomings, the recommendations, if adopted, would lead to a great simplification of college entrance requirements.

It is difficult to determine the extent to which the recommendations of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements have influenced the relation of secondary school and college. The Committee probably crystallized opinion which was widely held. It is doubtful in any event whether the Report exerted an influence comparable to that of the Committee of Ten. On the other hand, the Report was probably used extensively by secondary-school principals and teachers to the end that eventually changes in college-admission requirements were indirectly effected.

Although the Committee on College Entrance Requirements unquestionably contributed something of importance to the improvement of the articulation of secondary school and college, the Report of the Committee exhibited at least two serious weaknesses which served to limit its usefulness. In the first place, the Committee accepted almost without reservation the recommendations of the committees of specialists in foreign languages, mathematics, history, and

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science. There is no evidence of evaluation of these reports in the light of a philosophy of education from the generalist point of view. Thus the detailed reports on the content of units in the various subject fields exhibit in varying degrees the tendency of specialists to overvalue the importance of their subject in the education of youth. It is perhaps too much to expect that at this stage of our educational development a unified philosophy of secondary education should have been enunciated. Yet the lack of such a philosophy in the Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements probably accounts in part for the perpetuation of certain practices in academic study on the secondary-school level—practices which in many instances have proved an obstacle to the development of an effective program of secondary education.

A second weakness in the Report of the Committee was that it failed to give adequate consideration to the work which had been undertaken by the Committee of Ten and the Committee on the Correlation of Studies. In spite of the fact that the Committee on College Entrance Requirements owed its inception to the recognized need for making effective the recommendations of the Committee of Ten, it appears to have made no attempt to correlate its recommendations with those of the earlier committee. Furthermore, the Committee did not explicitly consider the body of educational literature which had been produced under the stimulus of the previous reports. Since college preparation was even at that time only one of the recognized functions of secondary education, the failure of the Committee to study the problem of entrance requirements in relation to the more general problem of secondary education detracted from the value of the Report.

Yet the document produced by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was a vital contribution to the development of secondary education. Its influence on the establishment of national norms in the academic studies was great and important. Its plea for individuality in the combining of these units according to a consistent plan was timely. But more significant than these contributions to educational thinking was the testimony which the Report bears to the value of coöperative endeavor in the attack upon educational problems.



## OBSTACLES TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY

FREDERICK W. OSWALD

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Frederick W. Oswald is principal of Eastern District High School in Brooklyn, New York. His article is an address delivered at a meeting of the Secondary Club, a group of high-school administrators and others who meet periodically for the discussion of educational problems.*

A. D. W.

TO ENUMERATE the obstacles to the development of intellectual curiosity seems to invite a discussion of those faults of our educational system which have been attacked again and again. It reminds us of Mark Twain's remark about New England's weather—atrocious and everybody deplores it but nobody ever does anything about it.

In trying then to list various obstacles I have made no attempt to evaluate this objective in relation to other possible objectives, nor have I given any thought to whether these particular obstacles were curable or incurable, nor have I sought to differentiate between the boarding school and the day school, the smaller private or independent schools and our immense New York City high schools, the progressive school and its more conservative brethren. Nor have I attempted to make an exhaustive list. I am simply naming some that have come to me during the two weeks since the topic was assigned to me. Some of them may not exist in your particular school and each of you may consider most important some obstacle that I fail to mention.

First I would mention the teacher as an obstacle. Few are conscious of this as a major objective, and still fewer are fortified with a rich and varied experience in many branches of human activity, with the result that they lack the power to inspire. There is no divine spark to kindle enthusiasm. There is a sameness in our teachers, a lack of individuality, of new points of view, of stimulating diversity of opinion. Particularly in our city schools many come from families without background, ideals, and culture. We have among us the cynical, the satirical, the apathetic. Some are antagonistic to finer as-

pirations, indifferent to moral training, with no lofty conception as to the function of the teacher—having little vital intellectual curiosity of their own, they do nothing towards fostering it in others.

Another obstacle is the pupil, a direct result, as it has worked out, of our concept of education for a democracy. The extension of the period of compulsory education has forced into our secondary schools a heterogeneous mass of pupils, many of whom have no desire to think. If they are refractory, the teacher's task is doubled. Two thirds of the pupils of our city high schools have an I.Q. of under 110. Until these two thirds are provided for in special schools or at least in separate classes it seems rather hopeless to attempt to stimulate real intellectual curiosity.

This leads directly to another obstacle—the class organization. The size of the class is a vital factor which results in formalism in the recitation and repression of the individual. When we join with these large classes a wide range of intellectual ability, we make the task almost impossible. No teacher can, without individual attention, hope to stimulate the bright pupil and the dullard in the same class; but the live, alert, inspired teacher can take a group of dullards and lead them to real thought and effort. The I.Q. may not be the proper basis for class organization but some method is needed to have our class groups as nearly homogeneous as possible.

Another obstacle is the overcrowded course of study which leads only to mental indigestion. Almost no subject is taken long enough to even lay a foundation for curiosity. English alone covers the full four years

of high school. Few of our students of foreign languages continue beyond two years and even in our largest high schools we find the seventh and eighth terms of a foreign language taught in a single class.

The unit system of promotion, graduation, and college entrance has led to a scattering of interests and the acceptance of a smattering of many things as sufficient for an education. This is a direct development of the elective system.

This situation is aggravated by our system of Regents and College Board examinations to serve as evidences of and measures of accomplishment in the various subjects chosen. The result has been that the sole aim of the pupil is to pass the examination which will give him a unit of credit. His teacher strives to instruct him in such ways that he will pass the test, which is to crown the work of the year or even term; everything extraneous to this important objective is strenuously ruled out. The teacher resents any digressions, and fellow pupils frown on anything which seems to lead aside from the most rapid and certain accomplishment of the one and only aim—passing the examination. And when this is done the subject may be forgotten as soon as possible, nay must be, to make room in the mental storehouse for the essential facts of a new subject that will add a further unit to the score. What chance is there under this system for the development of a live, active, mental curiosity?

And since our examination system demands some method to record the relative accomplishments of our pupils we must "give them a mark" to designate the exact modicum of perfection to which each has attained. The result again is that the shortest, most direct road alone may be followed. That teacher is best, in the eyes of both supervisor and pupil, whose pupils pass the test with the highest grades so that the encouragement of student originality is

checked by the pupils themselves as a weakness on the part of the teacher. Both teacher and pupil feel that a definite amount of work must be covered by a definite time. Time is the essence of the contract.

Our system of frequent promotions is a factor in the development of this obstacle. The pupil comes under the tutelage of a new teacher every five months. Each has to get acquainted with the other before there can be any real guidance or inspiration. In twenty-years teaching I have had but one single pupil that I carried through a three-year course.

The daily time schedule proves another potent obstacle to the development of our objective. A certain part of the syllabus must be covered during each recitation. There are less than forty minutes and then a raucous bell—in our school it is loud enough to wake the dead—demands instant change to have curiosity awakened in an entirely different field of mental endeavor.

Our textbooks have been so developed and improved that they are at present a real obstacle to the development of mental curiosity. They are complete in themselves. A careful study of the text is all that is needed and the pupil has come to look upon them as absolutely authoritative. I well remember the look of doubt on the faces of a new class when I ventured to correct a note in the text we were studying. We proceeded step by step to the answer I sought, but—. Even my statement that the author was teaching in a small country high school, had been a pupil of mine five years before at the University of Wisconsin, and that I must have failed to teach him this particular point, hardly convinced. Was it not printed in the text? Accepting the text is the easiest way for both teacher and pupils. Is it not a real obstacle to us if we wish to develop an awakened, live, insatiable curiosity in our pupils?

Many of our school libraries are not sufficiently commodious to seat a large number

## CRIBS OF KNOWLEDGE

of pupils seeking to satisfy an aroused curiosity. Most are not fully equipped and money is lacking to equip them.

For years we have been giving our attention to developing a methodology for the imparting of information and building of skills in a minimum of time with a maximum degree of satisfaction and accomplishment. We have also been giving considerable attention to developing a technique of measuring the pupil's acquisition of this subject matter. One important effect of the develop-

ment and standardization of tests and measurements has been to put emphasis on subject matter because that lends itself to testing more readily than does the development of intellectual curiosity or of any other aspect of mentality or personality. Are not the objectives of the past years our major obstacles? Can we now overcome the momentum we have developed in seeking other objectives? Can we perform an about face to make an awakened, live, insatiable mental curiosity our prime objective?

## CRIBS OF KNOWLEDGE

DOROTHY MARKS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Some day an ingenious candidate for the doctorate may prepare a very interesting and illuminating dissertation on "The Immortality of Term Papers." But Miss Marks, of Brooklyn, N.Y., has limited her comments largely to the "cribbing" on the high-school level. What is your solution of the problem she defines? Undoubtedly there are many remedies that might be applied.* F. E. L.

**T**HE midnight oil burns! Examinations are on. They come with wearying regularity for students and teachers—midterms, finals, Regents, and college-entrance examinations,—to test the powers of the pupils. There are, however, abilities often displayed in examinations that are not always properly appreciated by the powers that be.

If we were to take a survey of the oil burners, we should be likely to divide them into two groups—the truly knowledge hungry and the "crammers," feeble brethren who gorge their minds only for a night. And yet, there is another group I've become acquainted with as pupil and teacher in the New York City school system, a group whose powers we are apt to overlook, although they constitute the truly *creative*.

These are the vast army of inventors of *cribs*. Learning from dire necessity and their wise brethren of past exams, they burn the oil in order to turn out the devices that will help them elude the keen eye of the policing proctor and achieve passing marks, promotion, and the esteem of their fellow

students. They belong to the élite who know "how to get away with it."

Strictly speaking, the term *crib* should be applied to concealed notes that are to be illegally employed during recitations or examinations, or to plagiarized lines appropriated for one's own uses. So says the dictionary. Among pupils, however, the term has acquired a broader meaning. In developing its scope, it has taken on some of the color of genius and has often shed some of the sinful red associated with other social evils. A crib, in other words, may be any means—dishonest in the eyes of the unsympathetic—that helps a pupil over embarrassing obstacles to coveted ends. And often, as in the case of other prohibitions, the means may be abetted by or even provided by those officially connected with the school system. Teacher, publisher, stationer, proctor, school janitor, principal, and honest pupil have, within my experience, wittingly or unwittingly, given a helping hand to those who seek knowledge through the gentle art of cribbing.



My first contact with cribs came at an early age. Way back in old 2B in elementary school, Miss S— stimulated mental activity and moral depravity by inventing the "star card," as we called it. This was a cardboard stripped from the back of a six-by-nine pad, and cherished by every pupil. In a neatly ruled column for each subject, Miss S— imprinted with a rubber stamp a purplish star for every perfect recitation or paper. As little tests were frequently given for every subject, the teacher couldn't possibly keep track of the number of papers and recitations contributed by each child. It didn't take long for one seven-year old to learn this and to make the most of it by duplicating the device. The rest of us soon discovered what our colleague was doing; but not all of us had parents who could or would buy us outfits consisting of a rubber-stamp star and an inkpad. Surprisingly enough, even at that tender age we found it awkward to denounce the cribber to teacher. We were brave enough to sneer at the cheater when she boastfully displayed her stars, and to threaten to tell teacher; but invariably we withered before a scornful "tattle tale." As chief competitor, with a goodly display of stars honorably acquired, I felt personally thwarted; and yet I dared not take the fatal step and make a formal accusation. Just one circumstance salved the hurt I received then and cherished for many years. When prizes were awarded, my cribbing competitor as first-prize winner had first choice of all the prizes displayed—pencil sets, books, ink wipers, etc. Her true nature triumphed. She chose a gaudy pencil set (worth all of twenty-five cents) and left for my choice as runner-up the book of Greek myths I had craved and had mourned as lost. In the joy of getting what I wanted, I cared nothing at the moment about my loss of first place, but during a long vacation I often brooded over the unfairness of it all.

I wonder how many of us youngsters there were who, because of some scruple or other, refused to use a method adopted by a great many of our fellow students? The cribbers seemed to go on "getting away with it." What did we others do? We often felt resentful. We erupted in the bosoms of our families and were told indignantly that mother would go right down to see teacher, the principal, the whole Board of Education if necessary, to see that the cribbers got their just desserts. Mother was usually told, quickly and firmly, that she must not do that: it would mean the end of our careers and label us forever as double-crossers and coveters, as well as back numbers, dubs, and infants too honest to live.

And so we went on to high school wondering if we'd get a "break" in going after one of the Regents scholarships on our own merits. High school brought new friends, new problems, and new troubles. For high school, too, had its cribbers. There I, for one, made a vicarious acquaintance with "ponies," writing on the desk, blotter memos, notations on borrowed rulers, the handkerchief-in-the-purse ruse, surreptitious passing of notes, and few other unimaginative devices created by girls.

Many a pony rode triumphantly throughout Caesar's campaigns, Cicero's speech making, and Virgil's rhapsodizing. This little animal, offered for sale by various publishing friends, was a useful companion not only for oral exam day but also for daily trotting. The pages of "pony" or "trot" were sometimes dexterously gummed in place in the textbooks opposite the page to be translated, or the translation was delicately traced above the printed lines in the text. The latter method was more frequently used and more frequently detected. For some reason the Latin teacher never seemed to suspect the eloquence of a pupil who spouted in Drydenesque strophes the woes

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of Dido, as long as the printed page bore no incriminating pencil mark.

"Hold up your book," commanded Dr. L—.

And behold! A virgin print met her eyes, eyes too nearsighted, despite the thick glasses, to notice the silvery English on the page opposite the golden Latin.

I've never been able to understand such teachers' complete belief in their own ability to inspire these poetical translations. Perhaps an occasional pause, in the process of translating, gave an impression of youthful eagerness seeking the fitting word. Actually the pause was likely to be caused by the pupil's seeking her place again after resting her crossed eyes from the strain of reading text and pony at one and the same time. A subtle pupil, of course, would learn the value of well-placed pauses. But perhaps I'm all wrong, and the teachers knew the truth all the time but didn't know what to do about it then any more than I do now.

Writing on desks, blotter and ruler memos, and note passing are self-descriptive. Their success as cribs seemed to depend on the amount of attention given by individual teachers in scrutinizing all the equipment used by pupils and in policing the room during exams. The handkerchief-in-the-purse ruse was a distinctly feminine device. Exam day would find a remarkable increase in the number of sniffly colds that necessitated frequent applications of "hankies." The purse was the parking place for the handkerchief, and in the process of digging down for it one could often dig up small cards containing difficult math memos.

Since I attended an all-girls' school, my high-school contact with the art of cribbing was rather limited. Inquiry among male acquaintances and my own recent observations as a teacher of high-school boys and girls have opened my eyes to additional means of passing exams with bootleg concoctions.

Masculine efforts seem to depend to a great extent upon the development of a sleight-of-hand dexterity that girls are either too lazy or too clumsy to practise. Palming and depalming at the crucial moment, I have been told by past masters in the fine art of cribbing, were developed by some youngsters to a skill worthy of a vaudeville booking. Whether the use of sleight-of-hand during exams followed or preceded interest in card tricks I do not know. In any case, the boys seemed to make the most of their accomplishments.

A contrivance of one ingenious boy was the use of court-plaster on the wrist. The appearance of a strapped, sprained wrist a day or two before the exam forestalled the suspicions of any knowing teacher. The under wrist, therefore, could, on the important day, become the safe depository for a treasury of math or chem formulas. In making the most of a small piece of court-plaster, many a boy equalled and surpassed those medieval masters who inscribed the Lord's Prayer on a postage stamp or the Twenty-Third Psalm on the head of a pin.

Perhaps the master stroke was achieved by a man who is now a college instructor. There is one trick he is sure none of his students will "pull" on him, for he invented and used it himself. One exam day he limped into the classroom on the heel of one shoe. A bandaged ankle elicited the sympathetic murmuring of the proctor, who thought it perfectly proper that the stricken young man should cross his leg and nurse a tender foot. A closer examination might have revealed that the sole of the shoe on the bandaged foot had been kept carefully off the ground all the way to school to avoid the rubbing off of the crayoned dates of all the battles that pupil couldn't remember. With a slight twist of the wounded ankle, he could easily see and read.

Judging from my own observations in high school today and from those reported

by colleagues, cribbing is much more openly practised and on a larger scale. Students will communicate with other students, and then blandly deny any wrongdoing, insisting that they have merely asked for an eraser, a pencil, or a blotter. Many a bright child will admit that he cheats whenever necessary, especially when he considers the exam unfair, the judge in such a case being the pupil himself. Again and again I've had the problem of dealing with two or more students whose homework or exam papers were practically identical. Some will admit only after considerable joshing on the part of the teacher that the two papers with exactly the same ideas expressed in the same way are actually the production of one person. Occasionally the spirit of coöperation is modified to the extent that one coöperator will use the ideas of the other, but will change the sentence arrangement. A misplaced clause, he thinks, or the placing of the topic sentence at the end instead of the beginning of a paragraph will completely mislead the teacher. An accusation from a teacher on such an occasion will arouse the greatest indignation and the most obstinate denials of guilt.

The mechanical preparation of examination questions has become a department problem. Hardworked teachers in training devote weeks to clerical work, stenciling question papers, mimeographing them, assorting them, counting them, sealing them in envelopes, placing them in school vaults, and distributing them personally at the hour set. Students cannot help, for they are not permitted at this time during the term to enter the department office or the printing office. Printing offices, as a matter of fact, have been broken open by pupils who return to the building after school hours, possibly to find stencils or printed sheets left by a careless teacher.

I have heard of one department head who would not trust these examination jobs to

any one but himself. He made out the questions for every grade in his department, made and ran off every stencil, and sealed and delivered envelopes without the aid of any of his department teachers. He also carried to the furnace himself every scrap of mimeographed paper spoiled in running off the questions. We may believe his attitude justified if we realize why, recently, a completely new test had to be made up at the last minute in one midterm examination. A few hours before the scheduled time, it was discovered through the chance word of a talkative pupil to a keen teacher that the examination questions were common knowledge. Some pupils had found an entry to the school furnace and had discovered spoiled copies of the test left unburnt by a careless janitor. These pupils made the most of their opportunity and seem to have done a land-office business in the sale of copies of the test.

Fourth-year Regents examinations do not necessarily present the final opportunity for a display of cribbing ability. Some of the young high-school Houdinis continue the practice of their accomplishments in college. An improvement on the wrist court-plaster, for instance, was made by one of my honorable friends. This was a visiting card on a strong rubber band used as an arm garter. The card was easily concealed and easily reached under a loose coat sleeve. When needed, it could be pulled down to the wrist and held lightly in place by the fourth finger. Upon the approach of the proctor, the pupil could gently release the card to let it snap back to concealment.

A little more precarious than this, but still an improvement on the old days of card palming, is the palming and skillful manipulation of a tiny scroll. On the shiny surface of binding tape, neatly printed formulas show up clearly. The tape is rolled from both ends, so that as one side unrolls, the other takes up the slack. One culprit



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confessed to me that he had once managed to print a complete set of math theorems in proper order on such a scroll. An adept can easily roll and unroll the palmed scroll with two fingers. The best place of concealment for this device in case of the proctor's approach is the cap of the fountain pen. After all, what is more natural for the meditating pupil than to play absently with his pen, to twist its cap, or occasionally to tap it gently on the palm as he seeks an elusive fact?

This reminds me that some teachers claim that pupils have telegraphic tapping codes of their own by means of which they communicate with other pupils. I cannot accept this as a fact, but I must admit I have suspected on some occasions the use of similar schemes. During an exam I once noticed that many pupils had their eyes fastened on a pair of wiggling ears. What were the wild wiggles saying? Were they conveying a message to waiting, watchful pupils, or were they merely expressing agony or joy after a difficult task? Were the others seeking information in the vibration of a lobe, or were they merely staring in fascination at a rare accomplishment? My own enjoyment of this superior skill was sadly marred by an insistent suspicion that the boy had ulterior motives.

What an opportunity there is for daring pupils to aid their unprepared friends during Regents! Proctors then are assigned to groups with which they are not familiar. An attempt to take advantage of this situation was reported recently in the newspapers. A graduate student returned to his alma mater to take his friend's Spanish test. A chance recognition of the substitute by a former teacher revealed the fraud. Some schools try to thwart such trickery by checking the handwriting of each examination paper against previously filed signatures of the pupils. Not an easy task for schools with thousands of pupils!

One of my college classmates took a desperate chance when she concealed a complete outline of an advanced English course in her examination book. This was the last test she was to take in her senior term, and discovery would have caused her expulsion without a degree after four years of hard work. The group was a small one; she could easily have been detected had the proctor been more inquisitive and the other students more ethics ridden. But no one cared to report the matter.

This diffidence about "telling on" cribbers might have disappeared if we had had the honor system. And yet, I'm not sure about that. Individual classes were occasionally put on their honor by instructors who preferred not to proctor. Infrequently the class took the instructor seriously, and every one kept his own counsel. More often the class would go through a metamorphosis and become a forum for the discussion of the questions and the answers, and only on one occasion within my experience did a pupil feel in honor bound to report the transition. I doubt if the instructor cared to know. In all likelihood he usually threw the papers in the basket afterwards, and hoped that our preparations for the exam and our discussions during the-exam would prove of some value after all.

The honor system places an unpleasant burden not only on the cheating student but also on the students who see the cribbing and, according to the rule, are supposed to report it. Most of us have had the agonizing experience of hearing a dear friend plead for help during an exam and having to decide whether to give succor and participate in dishonorable proceedings, or to turn a stony ear and save our honor. It is annoying, too, to have a class acquaintance sneer at one for one's cold refusal of aid or one's threat to report cheating. The cynical attitude acquired after years of experience is only infrequently present during adoles-

cence. Such dilemmas can play havoc, also, with one's own ability to continue an exam with a clear head. I recall distinctly an incident which aroused my disgust and indignation to the point where my French weakened under the strain and I haphazardly translated "*frais des bois*" as "fresh from the wood."

This, for which I later received *la fram-boise*, was caused not by the activity of the cribber but by that of his accuser. A young lady with a high sense of duty came to the quiz with little understanding of the subject. The class, left on its honor this time, seemed inclined, for a change, to honorable dealings. They were, nevertheless, annoyed by one youngster who demanded assistance. He could not be rebuffed. Baffled, several of the men consulted audibly and decided to deal firmly but coldly with him. During this consultation, a bright idea struck the unprepared young lady. She stalked to the front of the room, made a dramatic accusation of cribbing, and concluded: "I will not lower myself to take this examination under such generally dishonest conditions," or words to that effect. She marched out of the room, but returned at the end of the period to report the incident to the instructor from her own point of view. According to the honor system in another university she had attended, such, she declared, was the procedure; and she stood upon her rights to refuse, as an honorable individual surrounded by knaves, to take the exam.

In this case, although a cribber was present, most of us felt unsympathetic towards the accuser. We all knew she too had cheated indirectly by her method of avoiding an exam which she couldn't possibly have passed. And then she put the rest of us in an embarrassing position by implying that some of us had connived in the dishonesty and that the rest of us had tolerated it. She, the bright and shining exception, was the only person with scruples. But she caused

considerable unpleasantness, and created the sort of problem for the instructor that confronts most teachers some time in their careers.

We are beset on all sides. We must not permit the demoralization bred of cheating and "getting away with it"; but there seems to be cheating all around us. We must report for unconditional failure those guilty of the slightest attempt at communication during Regents: but the principal insists upon a return of ninety-nine per cent passing. We sign a pledge promising to conduct the Regents with the most rigid adherence to rule and regulation: but a principal calls us upon the carpet for daring to brand a prospective graduate as a cheater because he has communicated with a neighbor. Of course, the teacher has several choices. She can follow the rules rigidly and be branded as one who keeps football stars from the teams or prospective graduates from their diplomas; she can adopt a cynical attitude—see nothing, hear nothing, say nothing, and displease nobody; or she can deliberately bait pupils into cheating.

Having pressure brought upon one for branding a football hero as a cheat is a somewhat common experience for conscientious and impartial proctors who cannot red-pencil a little nonentity's paper and then go blind in one eye when a famous half back helps himself to a neighbor's ideas. On the other hand, one charming young teacher I know salves her conscience by saying beseechingly to her examination group: "Remember, no 'gypping'!" before she posts herself at a window to flirt with a male proctor at the opposite window.

Most repulsive of all, in my estimation, is the proctor who pretends to sleep so that he may trap. A former high-school teacher—he has fortunately changed to a profession more suited to his particular talents—boasted that he often managed to mystify and terrorize children in his exam groups by

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his apparently occult powers. A glass-enclosed book cabinet in the rear of the room served as a mirror to reflect everything and every one in the room. This proctor deliberately assumed an abstracted air, looked out of the window, at the ceiling, everywhere except at the busily writing pupils. He then casually examined the books in the cabinet, turning his back to the class. Those in the class who tried to make the most of the opportunity were dumfounded and doomed by sudden, accurate accusations that left the victims unable to deny—as they usually do with great indignation—any intention of cheating. The harrowing effect of such an experience, plus the red-penciled memo on the paper, was often sufficient to muddle all the senses of the pupils and to prevent their finishing their papers.

Whether such a sadistic proctorial attitude is innate or the result of long exposure to the school system, I cannot say. Although I do not entirely blame him, I cannot get over my dislike for the teacher resorting to such ruses to satisfy his malicious inclinations. On the other hand, I find that I cannot despise or distrust those of my friends who have admitted their use of cribs, despite the fact that I have always been hopelessly and uninventively honest throughout my school career. Do I move in a depraved circle? Am I being sucked down into iniquity? I believe not. My friends are earnest, intellectually honest, and trustworthy people of the professional type—teachers, lawyers, doctors, journalists, artists, etc. None of them has broken into a bank, committed highway robbery, forgery, or any other form of larceny—but the majority of them admit having been cribbers.

Can I then look upon many of my present and past pupils as potential gangsters, sneak thieves, and counterfeiters because they crib whenever and wherever they can? Shall I damn them as cheats, have them refused diplomas and future college careers, and

perhaps blight in the embryo a professor of chemistry who now cribs in English exams, or an excellent journalist or inspiring teacher who cannot pass math without a conjuring trick? If I do that, I must in all honesty break with many of my friends, and refuse to expose myself any longer to their brutalizing influence.

Or shall I refuse to take my police duties too seriously? Shall I let that stupid football player crib and pass, and shrug my shoulders at the honest little fellow who wants to go ahead but just can't understand solid geometry and won't besmirch his principles?

I can offer no definite solution. Like many others, I can only talk about it, ponder over it, and wonder half fearfully whether or not fewer examinations would bring fewer situations in which pupils could crib; whether, since cramming and cribbing are rampant today, they do or do not defeat the purposes for which tests are used. The examination, as we use it today, aside from its dubious value as a testing and rating instrument, has created, it seems to me, a most undesirable bootlegging that is having a widespread influence on every one involved—from the pupil who cheats, and the proctor who pounces on him, to the principal who blusters over low averages.

It seems to be more than half natural for bewildered youth in a pinch to get through by hook or by crook. Although it may be the insidious beginning of a demoralizing philosophy for every one concerned, cribbing may be one way of adjusting oneself to conditions that are not what they should be. In any case, it's the easier way, if one can "get away with it."

## AND THAT REMINDS ME!

*A superintendent of schools was visiting his son, who was a junior in one of America's oldest universities. When one of the "brothers" hilariously entered the fraternity*



house the father assumed that he was drunk. The son explained that the young man was merely working off his resentment at his hard luck. Here is the story.

The English professor had set the date when a theme would be due. The student postponed the preparation until insufficient time remained. He went to that inexhaustible supply of "self-helps," the fraternity archives, and selected a reasonably satisfactory theme—well worn and mellowed with age. He had a public stenographer retype it.

His mark was A, but with the returned theme came a summons for a conference with the professor.

"Did you like that theme?" asked the professor. "Did you expect an A?"

The student, not wishing to be too boastful, admitted that he expected only B.

"Well I disagree with you," said the professor. "I wrote that theme twenty years ago and I received only a C on it. I thought then, and I think now, that it was an A paper. I am glad it has at last received its due recognition."

F. E. L.

## IMPERSONAL TREATMENT OF BEHAVIOR CRISES

C. O. WRIGHT

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We hear a veritable babel of voices proclaiming the merits of the automat, the automatic shoe shine, the syncro-mesh transmission, the self-heating baby's milk bottle, and the others. But Mr. Wright, principal of the Ingalls Junior-Senior High School, Atchison, Kansas, suggests the automatic self-disciplining device. Try filling out one of his blanks—they might work for teachers as well as for pupils.*

F. E. L.

COERCIVE methods of handling behavior problems have long been regarded as ineffectual. The modern philosophy of education opposes the use of direct force and police methods in control. Autocratic methods, except as emergency measures, are out of sympathy with American ideals both in the school and in general society.

Guidance authorities have pointed out that attacking methods of the teacher bring attacking responses from the pupil. There may be external conformity, but there is no inner reform. Rather there is produced an antisocial emotionalized attitude that may dominate in a most destructive way in the future. Psychiatrists are discovering for us that much lack of student interest in school results from arbitrary control; and consequent failures in studies follow from this distaste of school. The emotions of the student are deeply concerned in every behavior difficulty. Definite attitudes are the result of the experiences that the student has with the

school authority. These attitudes and the interests that surround them should be of more concern than the details of the immediate difficulty. Force does not build favorable attitudes in a thinking human being, but understanding and a frank, objective facing of facts do.

Many problem cases respond quite easily in early stages to a private-conference treatment where the student and the authority analyze the situation face to face. Other cases are sensitive to social influences of student group opinion. Such cases are relatively easily handled and a crisis in behavior does not appear. Other cases fail to respond to these methods after repeated exposure.

In the past, suspension or expulsion from school usually followed when these cases became acute. If opportunities were not properly accepted by the student, the old philosophy held they should be withdrawn. The student should be denied the privilege of school attendance; he should be sent

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home. But such a procedure did not cure the disease, it only amputated the leg. The obligation of the school remained, for it had not done the best for the student. The school had failed to meet the individual need of the problem student. The behavior crisis remained unsolved to grow into a greater problem for society in the years ahead.

A guidance device is suggested in this article as a partial solution of this problem; as a workable plan to assist in making the student a desirable member of the school and thus a potentially desirable, active citizen. The device aims to develop rationalized, inner controls within the individual, rather than to apply external controls within the environment. It depends upon establishing changes in the emotional feelings and responses of the individual. It claims its strength from the psychology of idealism rather than from behaviorism.<sup>1</sup>

In administering the device the contact between the authority and the offending student is impersonal. Words and thoughts are written and not spoken, and the entire procedure is made as objective as possible. The device consists of two forms which are printed or duplicated. The first form follows:

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

1. This is why I am in trouble. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. My conduct affects my class this way. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

3. My conduct affects me this way. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

<sup>1</sup> The basic philosophy and application of this device were secured during classroom study from C. E. Rugh of the University of California.

This first form is given quietly to the student and he is allowed to meditate and fill it out free from distractions. Normally, two or three writings are required before the desired result is secured. The first writing will generally show a decided individualistic trend. It will most likely be a defense of actions, a projection of responsibilities, or a justification of antisocial behavior. The offender will probably rationalize from a selfish point of view. The second writing which will follow after a reasonable interval of time will show a drifting towards social conceptions of the consequences of the behavior problem. The third writing usually brings a clear recognition of social values, consequences and obligations, and a realization of selfish and antisocial motives.

When a social statement of the behavior problem and its consequences is secured, the guidance officer just as objectively hands the student the second form which contains the following:

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

This is exactly what I will do if I am permitted to return to my classes in good standing. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Signed \_\_\_\_\_  
(Student)

Signed \_\_\_\_\_  
(School authority)

Guidance record. Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

It is not necessary that oral statements be made at all, though they may, of course, be made in a friendly tone. The treatment is objective from the point of view of the school; and is very subjective from the point of view of the pupil.

In operation the device works somewhat in this manner. First, the student makes a confession of his mistakes in terms of the social group, the school. Then he expresses repentance by his statements of the effects of his conduct, and then he asks the authority to reinstate him after his promises to do better. There is a change in his emotionalized attitudes towards the school authority and the school, and inner controls become operative. There is no attacking approach by the school and no counter-attacking defense by the pupil.

An actual case record showing the operation of the device follows. The results in this case have stood a test of over a year. The pupil in question was formerly ranked by his teachers as "the worst boy in the junior high school."

The first writing on the first form:

Name John Smith  
 Date October 30, 1930 Grade 7  
 1. This is why I am in trouble. "I was blamed for the loss of a hat that was taken off my desk and hid. When I threatened to whip the guilty party Mr. X (the teacher) lost his temper."  
 2. My conduct affects my class this way. "My class cannot study or recite when there is an interruption. Why should I care?"  
 3. My conduct affects me this way. "I cannot get the value of my schooling."

The second writing on the first form:

1. This is why I am in trouble. "The teacher blamed me for looseing my hat."  
 2. My conduct affects my class this way. "They cannot get their lessons if I am interfering."  
 3. My conduct affects me this way. "I cannot get full value of my schooling."

The third writing on the first form:

1. This is why I am in trouble. "I lost my hat or it was taken off my desk. I was mad and started a disturbance in class."  
 2. My conduct affects my class this way. "When one is out of order the whole class tries it. If more students act the same the school will get a bad name."  
 3. My conduct affects me this way. "I cannot get the full value of my schooling."

The second form was filled out by the student as follows:

Name John Smith  
 Date October 30, 1930 Grade 7  
 This is exactly what I will do if I am permitted to return to my classes in good standing. (The student underlined "good standing") "I will try to do my duty toward my school and myself by trying to do my best in all my school work."  
 Guidance record. Date. December 10, 1931.

John developed a fine attitude and showed marked improvement in his work. More than a year has passed and he continues to be a satisfactory student. He tells the principal, in the halls and about school, of his play interests, his ambitions, and his problems. He does not resent control as he formerly did. John passed in all his subjects each quarter and represented his class in intramural debates.

Before the crisis described by John he had been in much trouble which involved lack of emotional control. In the final difficulty his hat was supposed to have been in his locker, but he carried it to class so that he could leave for lunch without the delay of going to the locker. Apparently the hat was lost as he went to the room of Mr. X. John raised a disturbance about it and was impertinent to Mr. X. He was escorted to the principal who let him sit a while to cool off. Then he was asked to write quietly on the first form. At first he refused but was left at a table by himself with the form. In about an hour he had written his first copy. It was received with, "Well that is pretty good but I think that you can do better." After thirty minutes he finished the second copy and went to lunch. After lunch he wrote the third and final copy which was quite satisfactory. Then John was given the second form. He filled it out quickly, and a very short conference with the principal followed in which confidence was expressed that John would do exactly as he said he would. John then returned to his classes. Two or three hours were spent on the case.



## A SCHOOL ADVENTURE FOR PARENTS

LESTER DIX

*EDITOR'S NOTE: We asked Earle Rugg to solicit and edit a series of articles dealing with the solution of educational problems by means of concerted action of pupils, parents, and teachers. Mr. Dix, of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York, presents the first article in this series. The remaining articles to be published in this series are equally interesting.*

F. E. L.

**P**ROGRESSIVE education has a peculiar need for coöperative community relationships. Any school that has other than a traditional attitude towards its responsibilities requires of its community an exceptional morale built upon the fullest common understanding and participation in a common adventure. The very continuance of a progressive tendency in a school, whether public or private, calls for all possible activities which may promote the sharing of experience between the school and its parent group. In addition to this private need for a continued sympathetic support is the public responsibility of the school to help in the reconstruction of educational attitudes of the community. A progressive educational philosophy implies a progressive social philosophy which cannot satisfy itself by withdrawal to any pedagogical ivory tower. It must win its way in the public exchange of opinion if the school is to play an effective part in the shared life of the community.

These statements have additional force in the case of the secondary school. Progressivism, at this time, has hardly touched the high school. Wherever secondary education has allowed itself a glance in any direction other than the traditional activities of college preparation, it has found itself on the defensive before a group of parents long habituated to think of adolescent education merely as preparatory to the attainment of that greatly prized certificate of intellectual and social sufficiency, the college degree. The elementary school, free as it has been from the imminent shadow of college demands, has won some indulgence for experimentation and, here and there, has jus-

tified the privilege. When boys and girls go to high school most parents are inclined to lose their taste for anything outside the external pedagogical verities. Nothing must interfere with chances of success in the highly competitive business of getting into college. In the battle yet to be fought for progressive secondary education, the innovator will have to avail himself of every opportunity to live with and think with parents whose children are participating in the experimental activities.

The Lincoln School of Teachers College has at all times been keenly conscious of the need for the fullest possible interplay of ideas and attitudes between staff, student group, and parent community. This need has been met to some degree by a varied series of parent activities. Each year the Parent-Teacher Association has held a number of general meetings in which the freest possible discussion of all aspects of liberal education has been the rule. The Association has sponsored a number of subsidiary activities of the more intensive study type. Informal activities have developed, such as a fathers' group which comes together regularly to exchange opinions on any question which men feel pertinent to the education of their children. There is constant visitation to the classrooms and the special events of school life by a large percentage of the parents. In addition to all these contacts with the school life, the Parents Recreation Club has played a peculiar part among the coöperative activities of parents and school group.

In the spring of 1928 a parent remarked in a casual conversation that she envied the

opportunities which the modern school provided for children to explore a wide variety of interests. Her fingers itched for the clay which was providing her child with a consuming interest and a satisfying medium of expression. This conversation led to a meeting of a committee group which discussed at some length the possibility that a number of parents might be interested, as this mother was, in trying out new adventures or continuing, under favorable circumstances, old hobbies. An inquiry was sent out to the parents of all children in the school to learn whether they were interested in such a proposal, and whether they would join in organizing a recreation club. The response was immediate and favorable.

With this encouragement the committee decided that after the opening of school in the fall, they would send out invitations to join such an organization. It was proposed that individuals be free to pursue any interests, recreational, intellectual, artistic, or social, that could be carried on in groups with the aid of leaders from the trained personnel of the school staff. The club was to have the use of the school building and its equipment. Every one was to be free to begin where he chose and to be helped to further enjoyment and accomplishment in his preferred activity. Anything from handball to portrait painting was in order. A new swimming stroke, a linoleum-block bookplate, an improved French accent, or a period dressing table—any project was welcomed, and interested guidance was offered towards successful accomplishment. Parents were urged to bring out old hobbies and limber up their riding muscles. Naturally, a major interest among the staff leaders tended to be in the direction of creative discovery and aesthetic growth among the membership. But no uplift attitudes as such were tolerated. The emphasis was to be on enjoyment from beginning to end. The activity was to be supported by fees paid by

the members in amounts calculated just to support the enterprise.

It was immediately apparent that interest had not abated during the summer. A membership of well over a hundred was enlisted within a few weeks, and through the winter members engaged in activities involving twenty-five or thirty distinguishable techniques.

One group met with a young artist to explore the fascinations of painting, water color, and oils. In various years since the beginning, the studio has seen the completion of linoleum-block prints and etchings in such forms as Christmas cards and bookplates; decorative maps and lamp shades have had their following; textile designs, batik, and bookbinding crafts have been explored, and the perennial absorption in oil painting has been in evidence.

In the industrial-arts shop, members have made delicate jewelry and hefty ornamental iron work. Furniture has included antique periods and the current modernism. Artistic printing, woodturning, radio sets, and motor boats have not exhausted the versatility of the shop or of the industrial-arts enthusiasts. The pottery room has always been the center of interest for a large group. The results range from the simple ash tray painfully built up by the Indian coil method to elaborate portrait sculpture and matched tea sets. Beyond any such material result in importance seem to be the glow of accomplishment and the harmless idolatry of the dilettante artist. Stagecraft and dramatic art have been explored and plays given for the enjoyment of the entire club membership at the end of the session.

In the gymnasiums men have played at group games, women have pursued rhythmic exercises and dancing, and folk dancing has brought both groups together. The swimming pool has always been one of the most popular spots in the building. It is occupied throughout the evening first by beginners

## A SCHOOL ADVENTURE FOR PARENTS

trying to be happy with their faces under water, and later by practiced swimmers playing water games or learning new dives. Occasionally light refreshments have been served at the pool and it has tended to be a social center where most members turn up sooner or later. Usually the year has been terminated with an exhibition of work done and a general party, sometimes including the production of a play or an exhibition of dancing.

The full list of activities suggested for 1930-1931 was as follows:

Swimming for beginners  
Recreational swimming  
Limbering exercises  
Folk dancing  
The dance as an art  
Games  
Lineoleum-block printing  
Woodcuts and engravings  
Etching  
Photography  
Mechanical drawing  
Sketching  
Blackboard illustrations  
Freehand drawing  
Poster making  
Water color  
Oil painting  
Weaving  
Batik  
Tie and dye  
Soap sculpture  
Clay modeling  
Plaster casting  
Pottery  
Scene construction and painting  
Stage design and lighting  
Play reading and criticism  
Acting and play production  
Bookbinding crafts  
Leather work  
Picture framing  
Furniture construction  
Wood and metal turning  
Cabinet making  
Wood carving  
Forging and casting of metals  
Jewelry making  
Printing  
Chamber music

Quartette and choral singing  
French for beginners  
Conversational French  
Home decoration  
Costume design and millinery  
Cookery and catering  
Popular science

Some one or some group was engaged in each of more than two-thirds of these activities during the year. Two specimen pages from the booklet announcement for 1930-1931 are reproduced here. From these the informal character of the work and social relationships may be seen.

The club has continued until the present. On the whole, interest has not abated. The current economic situation has reduced the membership somewhat, but it seems reasonable to expect that better times will bring

### MUST YOU BE GRACEFUL?



Dancing will be available to members who are interested. Such forms as the groups wish will be offered. The gymnasiums provide for both men and women an opportunity for various programs of individual and group exercise and games. If desired groups of men and women may organize for folk dances. It is possible that during the year one or two interesting exhibitions within this field may be brought to the club. Our answer to the question "Can you help me reduce?" is "With pleasure!"



ENTERTAIN YOUR FRIENDS BY DESIGN  
RATHER THAN BY ACCIDENT



There are great hopes for the field of dramatics this year. The reading, study, and performance of plays; excursions to see other dramatic groups; and the whole fascinating field of modern stagecraft are open to exploration. Coöperation with the fine- and industrial-arts shops in the design and construction of costumes and scenery, and the management of lighting effects, would increase the richness of this activity. We have up our sleeve a man specially trained in the technical aspects of stagecraft if a sufficient number should become interested.

back numbers equal to those of the past. The final party and exhibition of the spring of 1931 was one of the most enjoyable and successful of the whole series, and the club considers itself a permanent feature of the school life.

What values can be claimed for such an organization? In the first place, it is an additional means tending to draw to the school some parents, at least, who would not come for other reasons. For these and for parents engaging in other activities it is an enrich-

ment of life growing out of school relationships. A certain number of interested members have always made large claims for the club as a contribution to adult education. It must certainly be admitted that much personal growth and self-discovery comes out of participation in the art activities. Purely from the point of view of the administration of the school, it is an additional phase of the whole program tending to promote better school-community understandings. It is a definite addition in the direction of parent morale. One who takes the trouble to start a project and find himself caught up in a consuming interest is increasingly able to understand the point of view of modern pedagogy. Such a person has less and less difficulty understanding the discipline imposed by the ardent pursuit of a purpose of one's own. Not the least important among the results of such shared adventures is the enriched sense of community, the social solidarity which comes to be expressed in the phrase "our school."

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## HOW I AWAKENED A LIVE, INSATIABLE, INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY BY MEANS OF LATIN

CHARLES A. TONSOR

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Charles A. Tonsor is principal of Grover Cleveland High School in the borough of Queens. He is an enthusiastic classicist. The article which follows grew out of an address delivered before a group of high-school administrators and others who had met to discuss methods of developing intellectual curiosity among high-school pupils.*

A. D. W.

**D**R. BRIGGS originally assigned to me the task of developing the topic for foreign languages. As the time was limited to ten minutes, with his permission, I am limiting the discussion to Latin. The original wording was "How I Would Go to Work to etc." I have taken the liberty of changing this to read "How I Awakened a Live, Insatiable, Intellectual Curiosity by Means of Latin," because I actually did. The record that follows is a record of actual classroom procedures.

In the first term, and to a great extent in the second term of Latin, I aroused the pupil's curiosity in language, as a means of expressing thought, what the viewpoint of each language really is, and how it affects the way the language uses constructions. This sounds difficult, but is, in reality, very simple.

Most critics of Latin know little of the modern methods of teaching Latin, and assume that Latin is taught today as it was years ago. This is not the case; Latin has progressed as all subjects of the curriculum have progressed. It has felt the effect of the application of modern psychology to its problems, as have all subjects.

To illustrate the work of the first and second terms: first, I aroused curiosity in the way English expresses its ideas. The older Latin books made much of rules, particularly the rule for the accusative case with verbs of motion, and the instances in which the preposition is omitted. Here is the way I went about this. What is the difference between "I went to church," "I went home," "I went fishing"? There is not a word of Latin here, but underlying these three

English sentences is the philosophy of the accusative case, in one of the uses about which the older grammars made much fuss. It does not take much questioning or presentation of similar sentences, with changed ideas, to arouse in the pupils' minds that all three involve the same principle. The pupils recognize "to church" as an adverbial modifier. "Home" presents a little more difficulty. They recognize the adverbial force, but will not accept it as a pure adverb. The sentence "I went three miles" brings out the objective force of the modifier and they recognize what they are taught to call in their English classes, "the adverbial objective." "Fishing" now presents no difficulty.

The rule for the use of the supine, as we were taught years ago, ran: "The supine in *-um* is used with verbs of motion to denote purpose." No such rule is now necessary. Fishing, in English, is a verbal noun; or more accurately, a verbal. The only verbal in the table of verb forms is the supine. The *-um* form is selected at once because they recognize the fact that the verbal must be an adverbial objective. No rule is required for this.

Let me give another illustration. What is the difference in English between "I have a book," and "I have a book to write," or "I have to write a book"? A question shows that the second sentence has come to denote necessity. Identically the same thing happened in Latin. When we studied Latin, we were taught the rule: "The dative of apparent agent is used with the second periphrastic conjugation to denote the person upon whom the necessity rests." Let us see how this situation is handled with young-

sters to awaken their curiosity about usage. They have had the principle that in Latin, as in Romance languages, the dative is used to show the possessor. They have been asked "What is the difference, in English, between 'I have a book,' 'the book is mine,' 'the book is for me,' and 'the book belongs to me'?" The third form looks like a translation of the Latin *Liber est mihi* or *Mihi est liber*. But is it? What does this "for" denote in English? What is the difference between the "belongs" in English and the *est* in Latin? What does "belongs" really mean? Has it a derivation that helps us? We have opened up a line of investigation. We accept as a conclusion the fact that English and Latin part company; that English prefers "I have a book"; that Latin prefers *Liber est mihi*.

What has this to do with necessity, you ask? The two sentences are now compared for their thought content. "I have a book." "I have a book to write." By analogy the pupils see the identity between the two parts in English. They translate the first part of the second sentence without any special rule, *Liber est mihi* or *Mihi liber est*—. But what about the "to write"? And they raise the question. An analysis of the English shows that "to write" is future, just as "I am going" may be future, or "I leave" may be future. The more exact tense sense of the Latin now is noted, as is the rather careless use of the English tense. A question on the function of "to write" in the English sentence brings out the fact that it is adjectival. It is also a verbal form. To express the idea in Latin we require a verbal that is future, and that is adjectival. Consulting the table of verb forms, the gerundive is the only form that suits. Hence we write *Mihi liber est scribendus*. We need no rule about the dative of apparent agent, or about the second periphrastic. This procedure has aroused such curiosity, that the English teachers have been somewhat annoyed, because the questions aroused in a Latin class

were causing the pupils to ask very puzzling questions in an English class.

In the third term, I made the work center around the Argonauts as the nineteenth century B.C. Columbus. I asked what induced Columbus to go on his voyage. They recall that he went west to get east. Jason showed more sense; he went east to get east. Pupils were questioned about the pre-Columbian discoverers, with the result that the library was besieged for books of discovery. The fleece was golden. Why? How did the ancients conduct their placer mining? When they finished this story, there was developed an insatiable curiosity concerning ancient quests and arts.

In the second half of the third and fourth terms, we read Caesar. Here is an example of how we proceeded. In the third chapter of the first book, Caesar says that the Helvetians were disgruntled because they had limited territories. He gives the dimensions: two hundred and forty miles in length and one hundred eighty in width. The notes in the text accepted the fact as true. Are these limited territories? We took our maps of New York and New England. We drew a line from New York City to Albany, and from New York City to Providence. We traced a square. We found that there were millions of people in this square. We read ahead in Caesar to find out how many Helvetians there were in the same territory. Three hundred thousand! And the Helvetians were crowded! Was Caesar fibbing? Were the Helvetians "he men"? Why the difference?

Dr. Oswald mentioned average I.Q.'s of 110. The following queries were raised in a class, the highest I.Q. being 98, and the lowest 70 odd. When reading about Caesar rushing in and grasping a shield, at a critical moment in the battle with the Nervii, this question was raised: "What would have happened if Caesar had stubbed his toe at that moment and fallen a victim, while un-



## INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY AWAKENED BY LATIN

protected?" This question opened up the whole field of Rome's contribution to European civilization. When this class came to the story of Caesar's bridge—we used Stebbins and Tonsor, *Progressive Course in Latin; A Book for the Second Year*, a "written-down" text—I skipped the story as being too difficult. The next day I was asked by the class to go back and take the story of the bridge. I told them it was very difficult. They insisted that they could do it, with the usual help. I yielded. Question after question was raised. The next day my desk was covered with cut-offs from 14 x 14 timbers, spikes, bolts, pieces of plank. They had ransacked the rubbish piles of the subway excavators to compare what they found with what Caesar gave as the dimensions of his timbers. When they found that the largest piece was only 14 x 14 against Caesar's 24 x 24, etc., they lost some of their admiration for the subway builders.

We had more fun when we came to Caesar's description of the animals of Germany. One boy brought to class Baron Munchausen's book with its improbable yarns. It spread through the class like wildfire. They decided that Caesar and the Baron were kindred spirits, in natural science, at least.

In the fifth term, we read the Catilines and parts of Sallust's *Catiline*. They compared the accounts and tried to get at the truth. They saw in this a picture of the problems of urban life; they saw the problem of depression. One of the lads used Caesar's argument, in Sallust, against the death penalty, as his argument in a debate, and won. He unwittingly invented a slogan: "Two thousand years don't make much difference!"

In the sixth term we read the *Manilian Law* and discussed it as an indication of Cicero's knowledge of economics and finance. I quote two passages that aroused much interest. If President Hoover had

memorized these, or had even read them, while at school, he would not have made the mistake of saying that "Prosperity is just around the corner."

*Deinde quod nos eadem Asia atque idem iste Mithridates initio belli Asitici docuit, id quidem certe calamitate docti memoria retinere debemus. Nam tum, cum in Asia res magnas permulti amiserant, scimus Romae, solutione impedita, fidem concidisse. Non enim possunt una in civitate multi rem ac fortunas amittere, ut non plures secum in eandem trahant calamitatem.*

I shall substitute for Asia, etc., the Hatry collapse; for Rome, the United States. "Again, a lesson which the collapse of the Hatry boom taught us, that surely, taught by bitter experience, we ought to bear in mind. For at that time when in Britain very many people had lost their investments, in the United States, we are well aware, with the stoppage of payments, the credit structure collapsed. For in any given society, many cannot lose their money and property without dragging many more with them into the same ruin."

*Haec fides atque haec ratio pecuniarum, quae Romae, quae in foro versatur, implicata est cum illis pecuniis Asiaticis et cohaeret. Ruere illa non possunt, ut haec non eodem labefacta motu concidant.* With similar substitutions: "This business of credit and banking which is conducted in the United States, right in Wall Street, is part and parcel of the European system and depends upon it. Their system cannot crash without ours, weakened by the same shock, likewise suffering a crash!"

These quotations throw an interesting light on present-day conditions.

That Vergil should give abundant exercise for the inquiring mind and spur the student to an intellectual curiosity, goes almost without saying. Yet let me give you two examples. In the first book occurs the line:

*Insequitur clamorque virum stridorque rudentum.* The onomatopoeia in this line is a distinct challenge. The class worked on it for three days, after which, by selecting the major contributions from several boys, the following was agreed upon as a fairly accurate translation:

"Rises the roar of the heroes, the shriek and the creak of the rigging."

The youngsters have preserved the effect of the "R" as found in Vergil's line.

In the sixth book is found Vergil's portrayal of the purgatory and transmigration of the soul. When this has been completed, students have been referred to the third book of Lucretius, and the Legend of Er, as contained in the seventh book of Plato's

*Republic*. The discussions following these three points of view have been enlivened by introducing Caesar's philosophy as found in Sallust's *Cataline*, and Cicero's as found in the *Archias*. There is never any difficulty save that of getting the students to their next class.

This exposition must be fragmentary, but it is concrete. It tells exactly what I have done and how I have aroused intellectual curiosity through the medium of Latin. It can be done with other languages as well. Two characteristics of the teacher are required: a lively interest in the subject and its relation to the student and the times: a keen intellectual curiosity, which calls up before others the experience it has had itself.

## IS INDIVIDUAL ACCELERATION POSSIBLE IN JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL SOCIAL-SCIENCE CLASSES?

FRANK RISLEY KENNEL

EDITOR'S NOTE: Frank R. Kennell is an instructor in Central High School, Bridgeport, Connecticut. He was formerly in charge of social-studies research in the Bronxville Junior High School, Bronxville, New York. He contributes a solution of the problem of using a discussion method in social studies and still permitting pupils to complete three-years' work in two and one-half years.

C. M. G.

THE plan described in this paper grew out of efforts to find a practical affirmative answer to this question for the social-science department of the junior high school at Bronxville, New York. Instruction throughout the system is adapted to the individual needs and capacities of the children. Individual instruction is interpreted as a technique of providing for the individual differences of pupils by permitting the more capable to advance at their own pace through the required units of work.

It must not be inferred that the Bronxville plan precludes enrichment. On the contrary, enrichment, and of the finest, is abundantly provided. But there are no fixed time limits. A child is free to linger on a

unit as long as he is profitably employed with it. Or he is free to leave it after the minimum requirements have been satisfactorily completed, as soon as his interest dies.

In such subjects as mathematics, this individualistic treatment is perfectly logical and convenient. The work may easily be "so arranged that each child may work entirely independent of his neighbor." But such individualism, when applied to the social studies, is very inconvenient. It raises problems of fundamental importance in teaching these subjects.

In the Bronxville Junior High School, it is quite generally agreed that discussion is the fundamental technique of social-science teaching. Effective discussion requires a

## IS INDIVIDUAL ACCELERATION POSSIBLE?

common fund of information upon a single subject of interest to the group as a whole. Now, providing for individual differences by permitting acceleration means that there will inevitably be "spread" in textbook preparation. That is, "the teacher will be satisfied with the learning of some much earlier than with the learning of others." The more rapid learners, proceeding at their own rates of speed, will be found at different points within the unit and ultimately some will be a whole unit or more in advance of their fellows. Discussions growing out of the reading of the pupils is seriously handicapped by this spread. If they are made to follow the "slowest diligent pupil's state of progress," the matter under discussion will not be fresh in the minds of the faster pupils. If it advances past the point reached by the slower pupils, the matter under discussion will not be in the minds of these pupils at all. No really workable compromise has yet been reached between the essentially individualistic program of individual acceleration and the needs of the social sciences. The writer believes that the proposal he is about to detail may contain useful suggestions for a solution of this problem.

## A PROPOSAL

The problems of the social-science classes in Bronxville are most perplexing in the ninth grade. The ninth-grade Rugg pamphlets, in the present experimental edition, do not satisfy the teachers. The best of the material in the four pamphlets is used in the first half of the ninth year. The second half has been devoted to a course in civics which has not yet been standardized.

Since there is no established course in the social studies in the high ninth grade, the writer proposes that a set of eighteen projects be prepared which will be the equivalent of an eighteen weeks' course in civics. These projects are to be based upon the Rugg texts, in so far as they are usable, but the

whole course is to be arranged to meet the needs of children in the seventh and eighth grades who will actually use them.

It is proposed that these projects be used as "acceleration units." The regular work of the social-science classes in the seventh, eighth, and low ninth grades is to proceed at a uniform pace. The children are not to be permitted to be either retarded or accelerated. The more capable children will be kept "profitably employed without hurrying the duller ones" by being given acceleration units to work on in their spare time. Thus a program of instruction can be devised, based upon "the slowest diligent pupils' state of progress."

The acceleration units are to be, as far as possible, self-instructive and self-corrective. It is the writer's aim to enable the children to direct their own work with a minimum of help from the teacher, and that, with the aid of standard, objective, diagnostic tests, they may measure their own needs and weaknesses.

The units are to be built up around "problems, issues, unanswered questions." Each unit is to be a more or less complete whole based upon a problem. The aim of the series is to be primarily to give the children practice in research and problem solving. Subordinate to this primary purpose will be that of forming civic concepts (and possibly also attitudes) based upon specific information.

The concluding units are to be factual and logical. Their purpose will be, frankly, to prepare the pupils to take an examination that will satisfy the requirements of the State of New York for a course in civics. This very formal drill work will have behind it a background of interesting research and problem solving and it is hoped that it will thereby meet Professor Henry Johnson's dictum that "the best guarantee of that temporary memory of facts which examiners so generally seem to expect is to teach at least some of the facts intelligently."



It is hoped that these "acceleration units" will offer opportunities for genuine enrichment of the regular work of the social-science classes. The brighter pupils may be expected to find vital relationships between their reading in American history or the story of the industrial and agricultural civilizations of today and the social and political problems on which their work on the civics projects will be based. In administering these projects, the teacher may require that the pupils make some actual use of the material in each unit in the general class discussion before it is finally approved.

The actual amount of acceleration that may be expected will, of course, differ with the different capacities of the children. The projects themselves will represent a "normal" eighteen weeks' course. This will no doubt work out in actual practice in a half year's acceleration for most of the brighter pupils in the three years' junior-high-school course. However, since the children do not necessarily enter the junior high school in a body in February and September, but from time to time as they finish their elementary school work, the "units" will help to adjust the late comers and the early arrivals. No doubt, the conventional June and February dates for finishing the junior high school will have a powerful influence in determining what the children will attempt. Some will feel spurred to extra effort in order to finish "on time." Others with "more time" or with "less to do" will feel rather more leisurely.

When the writer presented his plan before the Bronxville faculty, in his seminar, and to other interested persons, certain doubts were expressed concerning some of its aspects and implications.

In the first place, it was noted that a series of eighteen units confines acceleration within rigid boundaries which correspond to the rigid class divisions of the school. The writer replies that it is quite true that rather

arbitrary limits are placed upon acceleration by these projects. But this is inherent in the effort to introduce a system of individual instruction without changing the rigid groupings that are characteristic of the "lock-step system."

Another pertinent question concerns the grade placement of the civics material. Is it desirable to introduce a course in civics into the seventh grade? The writer replies that of course it would be inadvisable to introduce a ninth-grade course in civics into the seventh grade. But suitable aspects of social problems may be and are introduced even in the kindergarten.

The writer does not propose merely to break up a high ninth-grade course in civics into eighteen convenient parts. The material is to be carefully revised for the purpose he has in mind. Doubtless his work will undergo much revision before it proves satisfactory. Only after extensive use and careful revision of the units will it be possible to determine whether or not the plan itself is fundamentally sound. For the present, he must content himself with an a priori defense of it as at least a possible solution of a very distressing problem and one which, in the absence of a better, is well worth a fair trial. It has the advantage of fitting existing conditions since it permits acceleration within the class groupings upon which the administrative side of an unusually successful progressive school system is built.

#### INSTRUCTIONS AND PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

##### A Tentative Outline of Eighteen Enrichment Units in Social Science

*First major problem:* What is democracy?

- Unit 1. How the Florentine People Struggled for Democracy, by John Noble Washburne.
- 2. Free speech; the first great foundation stone of democracy.
- 3. Habeas corpus and trial by jury; the second great foundation stone of democracy.

## THE UNOFFICIAL PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

4. The ballot box; the keystone of the arch of democracy.

*Second major problem:* Is the progress of American civilization towards democracy?

- Unit 5. How do the American people control the officers whom they elect to govern them?
6. Do huge combinations of capital menace democracy?
7. Should the Government regulate business?
8. Has the tendency of political reform been towards democracy?
9. How does our Government serve us?

*Third major problem:* How does the Government work?

- Unit 10. How are laws made?

11. Is the Constitution of the United States up-to-date?

12. How is our president chosen?

13. How does the Government spend its money?

14. How does the Government get its money?

*Fourth major problem:* Some problems that are worrying American statesmen.

- Unit 15. How can the Government help the farmers?

16. What can be done to conserve our natural resources?

17. Can the United States keep out of international politics?

18. Formal outline and review based on the New York State Syllabus in Civics. Final Examination to meet State requirements.

## THE UNOFFICIAL PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

H. H. RYAN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Shall we "pass the buck" to the parents? H. H. R. merely "threatens" to do so and his problems evaporate. This is the third article in the series being edited by Earle U. Rugg on "concerted action."

F. E. L.

FROM the viewpoint of the school principal the Parent-Teacher Association is a mixed blessing. The majority of the activities of such organizations are beneficial to the school and helpful to the principal in his administration of the school. In certain sections of some of our large cities, the Parent-Teacher Association is the social center, with a tremendous influence upon the sentiment of the community. Its members are usually untiring in their effort to improve the opportunities afforded their children.

Now and then trouble starts when the organization attempts to take over some of the functions of the Board of Education or to bring undue political influence to bear upon the board in order to obtain special concessions for the district. Sometimes the Association gets into difficulties, just as a small boy does, as the result of not having enough legitimate business to keep it occupied. If the Association elects a group of energetic

officers who have no other civic responsibilities and who look upon the office as opportunity to force oneself into the public eye, nails are likely to be driven into the legs of the piano.

Every school is in need of occasional testimony and advice from its clientele. Many school communities still possess that type of medium of communication who is considerably less common than he was in the previous generation—that is, the chronic kicker. The reduction in the number of plaintiffs who appear at the principal's office in a year's time is due partly to better administration, partly to better understanding of the schools and their purposes, and partly to the decision of the typical parent to let things pass rather than challenge them. It may be that we have reached the point where the patronage of the school is too long suffering; that it would be better for us if we got more reactions than we do. The writer

is convinced that the school should take steps to consult the opinion of the parent on a great many points. The principal has many decisions to make which are not based primarily upon educational policy or upon the results of research; some of these are merely questions of preference. In such a dilemma the principal may well reflect that democracy is essentially a device for finding out what people prefer, and may come to a decision on that basis.

Two years ago one of our small-boy teams was taken to a neighboring town for a game of basketball. The game was played in the afternoon and the boys were home in time for a late supper. A few days later one of the teachers reported that he had received a complaint in which the opinion was registered that such trips could not but be injurious to boys of that age. The principal immediately sent to the parent of each boy who took the trip the following inquiry:

December 27, 1929

DEAR MRS. \_\_\_\_\_:

The purpose of this letter is to inquire as to your feeling with regard to short out-of-town trips for the basketball players of the seventh and eighth grades. On December 16, as you know, these players took part in a game at Stoughton. They were accompanied by their coach, a student teacher.

We wish to be guided by the wishes of the parents in this matter, and would appreciate answers to the following questions.

Very truly,

1. Were there evident ill effects in the case of your boy in connection with the December 16 trip? Overstimulation? Excessive fatigue? Serious distraction from school work? Serious upsetting of family program? Other effects?
2. Do you approve of such short trips for boys of these grades?
3. Other comments and suggestions?

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

In response to this inquiry, one parent testified that he felt that there was overstrain, and two said that there was excessive fatigue. Only one parent disapproved of these trips. A number of comments and sug-

gestions were made which aided in the planning of the next trip.

In the spring of 1930, some of our teachers expressed the opinion that our school life was too complex and that parents in general disapproved of it. A letter was prepared and sent to each parent describing the situation as faithfully as possible, calling attention to the difficulties encountered in financing football and other extracurricular activities, and stating that the school wished to know the opinions of the parents on the subject. A questionnaire was enclosed as follows:

1. Do you favor an annual activities fee of \$3.00 to be paid as a part of the tuition?
2. Do you feel that Wisconsin High School should maintain a football team?
3. Are short club meetings on week nights permissible?
4. Comments:

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

From a student body of 370 pupils, 185 replies were received with parental signature. There were 142 votes for the activities fee, 23 against, and 14 doubtful. One hundred seven parents approved the continuation of football, 64 disapproved, and 14 were neutral. One hundred forty-two endorsed the idea of evening club meetings, 23 disapproved, and 14 were undecided.

The question with regard to football, of course, touched a sensitive spot in the anatomy of the sport writers and they showed a lively interest in the balloting. They telephoned the principal's office each morning to learn the totals of the votes which had been cast pro and con to date.

This school has always prohibited smoking by either boys or girls at parties held under the auspices of the school or its subdivisions. One of the organizations recently rebelled against the enforcement of this rule at a party held by it in a private home. In the discussion which followed, the disagreement seemed to hinge upon the question whether public sentiment any longer demanded that school authorities give atten-



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tion to the question of smoking. The prevalence of smoking among the parents of both sexes was thought to indicate that the school might save itself the trouble.

The principal suggested that it should be possible to learn the opinions of the parents with regard to this matter. He proposed that a questionnaire be sent to the parents of all the boys of the organization and of the guests at the proposed party. The following letter was prepared:

### TO THE PARENT:

It is desirable that we learn from time to time the opinions of our parents with regard to matters towards which the attitude of the general public is constantly changing. We should greatly appreciate your answering the following questions and adding any comments which may come to your mind with regard to the subject. It is evident, of course, that the value of this inquiry will be lost unless we obtain opinions which are strictly those of the parent.

This inquiry is sent to the parents of only a sampling of our boys and girls.

1. Should the school continue to prohibit smoking on the premises during the school day?
2. Should the school continue to prohibit smoking at parties and other extracurricular affairs held on the premises?
3. Should the school continue to prohibit smoking at parties and other extracurricular affairs held away from the premises by the school and its organizations?

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Representatives of the organization were asked to study this letter and criticize it as to its probable effectiveness in eliciting the information desired. They asked that the mailing of the questionnaire be postponed for a time.

In the succeeding two weeks the boys discussed the matter informally among themselves, but held their party in strict accordance with the regulations of the school. At one of their regular meetings the question was raised whether they desired to have the questionnaire go out. A number of boys took

the floor to say that they knew how their parents felt about it—that they would expect the school to continue the prohibition. When the matter came to a vote, a decided majority favored the voluntary acceptance of the regulations and the elimination of the questionnaire. Here was a situation in which the unofficial Parent-Teacher Association wielded a decided influence without being conscious of it.

Last year our football team had the good fortune to win the championship of our league. It was the first time in the history of the school, and pupils, parents, and teachers were anxious to give the boys something by which to remember the victory. A group of the fathers, with a temporary organization under the name of the "Owls Club," agreed to add to the contributions of pupils and teachers enough money to make it possible for the boys to have gold footballs.

The freshman class petitioned the social committee for the privilege of giving an evening party. Up to this time the evening parties had been delayed to the sophomore year. Here again was a question which should be decided on the basis of the sentiment of the community. The counselor of girls called a number of representative parents by telephone and inquired as to their opinions. We were somewhat surprised to find these parents unanimously in favor of the party.

We find it to our advantage to keep parents posted as to changes in administrative policy, as to honors won by our graduates in higher institutions, as to the condition of finances in the student activities, and as to all the major problems which we face and in which parental advice might be helpful. In short, we have found this unofficial Parent-Teacher Association to be the source of a great deal of help and to be productive of no administrative worries whatever.

## FROM OUR READERS

Mr. Chase, in the following letter, takes up some points which are of great interest to us.

*Editor, THE CLEARING HOUSE:*

I have read your interesting magazine for over a year now and wish to express my general commendation of it. There are several matters, however, which I wish to criticize. My attitude, I assure you, is friendly, and I give you my criticism frankly and for what it is worth, which cannot be much, for my reaction is a purely personal one and not necessarily representative.

I wish to criticize first the lack of discrimination shown by your editors in selecting articles for publication. While the magazine maintains a fair average, there are many articles published which are so reactionary as to appear out of place in a periodical which represents the progressive elements in secondary education. I am a young man of relatively little experience in the profession, and I am trying to get myself oriented and directed towards educational objectives which are sound but modern. I have found some articles in your magazine which have aided me in forming a progressive philosophy, but I have been confused by others which presented ideas that I am sure are outmoded. Your editors could get plenty of articles, I think, written by schoolmen who share the faith in modern educational concepts. A progressional magazine that tries to give liberal and conservative views both at once is like a train trying to transport passengers to opposite destinations.

My second criticism concerns your book-review department. It has some interesting reviews, but I have thought that the reviews, when averaged up, are too laudatory. Among the thousands of books published, there are, after all, only a relatively few significant ones, and these are the ones your reviews should recommend. Your book section, it seems to me, lacks a unified point of view because you have many reviewers instead of a few. Unless your readers can be familiar with the biases, prejudices, special interests, and aversions of each reviewer, it is difficult or impossible to know what dependence can be attached to any particular appraisal of a book. I should be interested to know whether there are other readers of your magazine who have noticed the apparent lack of a unified point of view in your book-review department.

Very truly yours,

KENYON P. CHASE

We are delighted to pass on the comments by Mr. Chase. Possibly other readers will wish to send us their reactions to the policies discussed by him. I hope that we may be able to get Mr. Chase to indicate some of the "outmoded" articles. We should like to compare his ideas with our own.

THE CLEARING HOUSE has a very active board of editors. We carry no "dead wood" and in no sense do we have an honorary board. Articles are solicited by members of this board from many sources. As the name of the journal indicates, we are attempting to furnish a medium whereby junior- and senior-high-school people may exchange ideas concerning the profession of teaching. "Progressive," "conservative," and "reactionary" are relative terms. A practice that would be considered reactionary in one community might be considered positively radical in another; of course, the reverse is equally true. Progress in education is made slowly—we cannot hope to remake the educational philosophies of many teachers in a day. THE CLEARING HOUSE has opened its columns to the most progressive teachers in the most conservative communities just as it has given publicity to the most progressive practices in the most progressive communities. We have no axe to grind. If the "progressives" don't like what the "conservatives" write for this journal we feel that they will make a real contribution to the science of education if they will answer these conservative recommendations. We shall be pleased to publish the answers.

We even extend this same freedom to our editors. All editorials in THE CLEARING HOUSE are signed and they represent the opinions of the writers at the time of writing. With an editorial board, the members of which are scattered over the entire country, it would be well nigh impossible for us to reconcile their diverse points of view and interests in our editorials, even if such a plan were desirable.

## BOOK NOTES

As to our book reviews! We recognize the possible merit of a plan such as Mr. Chase recommends. However, there is a very real danger in having a small group handle all our reviews. They are likely to consider themselves an oracle which can speak authoritatively on all publications which come their way. We ask qualified teachers and administrators to review books. Of course we never ask a reviewer to modify his statements concerning a book. These reviews are signed and represent the

ideas of those writing the reviews. We are not averse to publishing two or more reviews of the same book, provided each is written by a qualified expert.

To sum up our position we might say that THE CLEARING HOUSE never speaks. All classifications of the profession are encouraged to speak through THE CLEARING HOUSE. As the profession becomes more militant we shall undoubtedly make greater progress. We shall continue to publish these progressive statements. F. E. L.

## BOOK NOTES

EDITOR'S NOTE—The readers of THE CLEARING HOUSE will welcome the reappearance of this section on book notes. Miss Mildred Batchelder, who, as a member of the American Library Association, has kindly consented to edit this material, is librarian of the Haven School, Evanston, Illinois. L. B.

"To be read by winter fireside" should be plainly marked on each of these books. The instruction might add "and to keep permanently on the bookshelf nearest the settle." Do people still have bookcases and fireplaces?

Willa Cather tells her new story, *Shadows on the Rock*, of Quebec, the rock-set Canadian town. In the days of Count Frontenac this isolated colony spent months of the year with no communication with their homes in France. Canada was a ruthless country but the sincerity of the people and the appeal of the rugged, wintry town made Auclair the apothecary, and his twelve-year-old daughter, Cécile live contentedly in their house on the "tilted street" of Holy Family hill. The king's failure to call the count back to France made Auclair determine to share his patron's fate and remain in America. Not the incidents but the pictures created by the story make it stand apart from recent novels. The count's room at the Chateau with its fruit of glass on the mantelpiece, the cathedral, the Ursuline convent, the old bishop's meagerly furnished apartment and

the bishop himself, Christmas and unpacking the *crèche*, coasting after the first snowfall, the baker's house, the pathetic Blinker, the cobbler's shop, and many other scenes and people stand out vividly. It rushes us back to times long ago when we read—"Suddenly she bethought herself of something and pointed with her crutch to a little cabinet of shelves covered by a curtain. There ladies shoes, sent in for repair or made to order, were kept, as being rather too personal to expose on the open shelves with the men's boots." Cécile's trip on the river and her most unsatisfactory visit to the Harnois's in the country are the only departures from the town. Here is one more book which will be as appealing to young people as to their mentors. But why did there have to be an epilogue?

"Librarians, book lovers, book writers—we are all tarred by the materialistic world with the same stick. But what a good laugh we have. We are all living in a lovelier world than this material world; we are living in the world of ideas and beauty. What a world!" So writes Lew Sarett in a li-



brarian's copy of his book which contributes so much towards making that world for some of us.

In his *Wings Against the Moon* he gives us pictures and experiences of a very sensitive person. There is intense love of the animals of the north woods, the bear, the coyote, the fox, the wolf, the buck, and of the birds, the bittern, the loon, the geese and, above all, the wild duck. There are hunters and lumberjacks and Indians described with sympathy and understanding. There is delicacy and strength, beauty and cleverness, and occasionally a slight tinge of bitterness. Among these serious poems, some of them very beautiful, it is a surprise and considerable fun to come upon the pathetic meditation, *A Dog's Life*, and *Impasse* (how can sheep be so stupid!), and *Hollyhocks* which gayly flaunts its adjectives. This is not Mr. Sarett's first book. The three slender volumes of verse which have come before will more than repay acquaintance with them.

Some Recent Book Notes Selected from the *The Booklist*, published by the American Library Association

*The Best Plays of 1930-31*; the yearbook of the drama in America, edited by BURNS MANTLE. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1931, 570 pages, \$3.00.

Contents: Elizabeth the Queen, by Maxwell Anderson—Tomorrow and Tomorrow, by Philip Barry—Once in a Lifetime, by Moss Hart and G. S. Kaufman—Green Grow the Lilacs, by Lynn Riggs—As Husbands Go, by Rachel Crothers—Alison's House, by Susan Glaspell—Five Star Final, by Louis Weitzenkorn—Overture, by William Bolitho—The Barretts of Wimpole Street, by Rudolf Besier—Grand Hotel, by Vicki Baum.

*American Literature as an Expression of the National Mind*, by RUSSELL BLANKENSHIP. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1931, 731 pages, \$4.00.

A critical history of the American literature which covers a period of three hundred years from John Winthrop to Ernest Hemingway. The first part analyzes the psychological, racial, and intellectual elements which have influenced the

growth of our nation. The second examines the writings of individual writers and defines their contributions to national literature, describing their environments and personalities. Chapter bibliographies.

*My Father: Mark Twain*, by CLARA CLEMENS. Illustrated from family photographs with hitherto unpublished letters of Mark Twain. New York: Harper and Bros., 1931, 292 pages, \$5.00.

This memoir by the daughter who was Mark Twain's almost constant companion supplements such biographies as the Paine *Mark Twain* (A.L.A. catalog 1926) by its presentation, through anecdotes and unpublished letters, of the author's intimate family life.

*The Flame*; Saint Catherine of Siena, by JEANETTE EATON. New York: Harper and Bros., 1931, 318 pages, illustrated, \$2.50.

This, like *A Daughter of the Seine* (Booklist 26:74, N 29) is the story of a fascinating and brilliant woman from early childhood. Because of its theme and its appeal to mature thought and emotion, this vividly written biography will be of interest to many older readers and occasionally to the girl of fourteen or fifteen.

*The Provincetown*; a story of the theater, by HELEN DEUTSCH and STELLA HANAU. New York: Farrar and Rhinehart, 1931, 313 pages, illustrated, \$3.00.

Under the leadership of George Cram Cook, a group of authors and artists in 1915 began to write, stage, and act their own plays, first in an old fish house on a wharf in Provincetown, then in a residence in Greenwich Village. This theatrical experiment which introduced Eugene O'Neill and Edna St. Vincent Millay and stimulated the little theater movement in America had an honorable lifetime of fourteen years and left its imprint on the American stage. The authors of this intimate history are former members of the theater staff.

*Cold*; the record of an Antarctic sledge journey, by LAURENCE MCKINLEY GOULD, with 47 illustrations from photographs by the author, two maps, and two color reproductions of paintings by David Paige. New York: Brewer, Warren Putnam, 1931, 275 pages, \$3.50.

As chief geologist and second officer of the Byrd Antarctic expedition, Laurence Gould di-

## BOOK NOTES

rected the 1,500 mile dog-sledge journey across the Antarctic wastes to the Queen Maud Mountains. His book is a personal record, concerned with the adventure rather than the scientific aspects of the trip. The story has also been told by another of the party in O'Brien's *By Dog Sled for Byrd* (Booklist, 27:507, J1 31).

*Tune In, America*; a study of our coming musical independence, by DANIEL GREGORY MASON. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1931, 205 pages, \$2.00.

Mr. Mason feels it is time America ceased being a passive listener to music and began to take an active part in it. He discusses the influence, good and bad, of the phonograph and radio and of such institutions as school and college choruses, orchestras and bands, as well as the part an intelligent audience may have in forming public taste. Interesting and stimulating. A part of the material has appeared in various periodicals.

*The Best Poems of 1931*, selected by THOMAS MOULT and decorated by ELIZABETH MONTGOMERY. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1931, 106 pages, illustrated, \$2.50.

The editor's choice of the magazine verse of the year includes poems by more than several poets. The greater number are English but America is represented by William Rose Benet, Dorothy Parker, Sara Teasdale, and others. Attractively printed and illustrated with small drawings, but lacks an index.

*Newton D. Baker; America at war*, by FREDERICK PALMER. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1931, illustrated, 2 volumes, each \$3.75.

Preface: "Based on the personal papers of the secretary of war in the World War; his correspondence with the president and important leaders at home and abroad; the confidential cablegrams between the war department and the headquarters in France; the minutes of the war industries board, and other first-hand material." This important contribution to the history of America's part in the World War makes public much confidential material and throws new light on the activities of the war office and on the relations of the men in power. It clarifies Baker's position but it is much more than a justification of one man, showing as it does, in proper perspective, our whole program of war as it originated and was carried out. The book complements Pershing's *My Experiences in the World*

*War* (Booklist 27:449, Je 31) which gave the overseas history of the war.

*How To Be Happy Though Human*, by WALTER BERAN WOLFE. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1931, 291 pages, \$3.50.

A common-sense treatise on the psychology of human relations. The author believes that living happily is a fine art that nearly every one with intelligence, courage, and sense of humor can learn. After stating the fundamental principles and practices in the art of practical psychotherapy he describes some of the problems, tools, technique, and the major satisfactions which may be derived.

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### BOOK REVIEWS

*The Dean in the High School*, by MARY HOOKER JOHNSON. New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1929, 354 pages, \$3.25.

What does a dean of a high school do? Is he a glorified disciplinarian? Does he reproach tardy pupils? Does he give vocational counsel? Does he protect the principal from fussing parents? Does he give and interpret psychological tests? Does he arrange dramatics, parties, and election campaigns? Does he dominate the student council? Does he organize, encourage, and give subtle direction to parent-teacher organizations? Is he just another administrative officer to interfere with the classroom teacher by requiring reports on Bill and Mary? What is his job anyway?

Miss Johnson who has had perhaps the longest outstandingly successful experience of all high-school deans explains her work and supplements her exposition by examples of successful practices of other deans. Her discussion is of primary interest because of the challenging success of the Washington Irving High School of New York City in which Miss Johnson has been dean and administrative assistant for many years.

This is the school which, more consistently than any other in our country, has faced fearlessly the problems of public universal secondary education. Under its former principal, William McAndrew, the faculty became socially conscious and alert. His successor, the present principal, Edward C. Zabriskie, well states the results of the faculty's conception of the school. It "makes its mission that of a guide to nearly all of our youth, that they may grow into good citizens, prepared for independent self-support and self-realization, able to obtain some measure of happiness as a result of worthy effort and an appreciation of intellectual and cultural associations."

This guidance function is centralized in the hands of the dean. And Miss Johnson explains in ten chapters the need of a dean, the dean's position in the high school, the guidance program in matters of further education, of health and personal hygiene, and of personality adjustments, the dean's relations with parents, with student councils, and citizenship training, with character training, with the children's uses of leisure time, and, finally, the ever broadening scope of the dean's duties and opportunities.

In a very valuable appendix are explained personal record cards, both the cumulative record forms developed by Dr. Ben Wood and his associates and the forms in use at the Washington

## BOOK REVIEWS

Irving High School. There are sections dealing with student participation in the management of small high schools and large high schools and of clubs and parties. A selected bibliography follows the appendix.

Because of its concreteness and constructiveness this book is a very valuable addition to the available literature on school guidance, social organization, and administrative procedures. It should find a place in the libraries of all administrators of larger high schools.

P. W. L. C.

*Problems in Biology*, by GEORGE W. HUNTER. New York: American Book Company, 1931, 706 pages, \$1.76.

This is one of an increasing number of high-school science textbooks which suggest classroom procedures concretely by building them into the content. The book follows a unit structure. Survey questions introduce each unit and are followed by a preview. The major part of the unit then follows in the form of numerous problems with suggested demonstrations and experiments. At the end of the units new-type tests of various kinds are presented in such a way that they can be used as guides for directed study or as exercises in review.

The book is planned for a full year of high-school biology. It contains sufficient material to permit the teacher a wide selection of subject matter. Each unit is followed by a supplementary list of useful references. The book is attractively illustrated and the presentation is vivid. This textbook is worthy of careful consideration by teachers of high-school biology.

G. W. LEMAN

*Supervision in the Secondary School*, by H. B. ALBERTY and V. T. THAYER. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, v + 462 pages, \$2.00.

Supervisors and college instructors of classes in secondary supervision who conceive supervision in broader terms than "scientific techniques" and class-visitation rating and conference, have felt the need of a competent treatment of secondary-school supervision. As such, they will welcome the volume under review. Its authors are philosophers and practitioners rather than mere technicians and researchers. They "envisage the primary task of the supervisor to be that of encouraging and assisting his teachers to organize the details of teaching in harmony with the larger purposes of

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education of the secondary school. This carries with it as a corollary promoting the growth of a teacher's personality and enhancing the dignity of the teaching activity itself."

The book consists of an introduction: "The Background of Secondary School Supervision," and four parts: (I) The Supervisor Looks at His Job; (II) The Supervisor and His Teachers; (III) The Supervisor and Pupil Relationships; (IV) The Organization of Supervision. It espouses a democratic conception of supervision according to which the imposition of the supervisor's will upon his colleagues is not sanctioned. "Neither does it permit of a relationship in which each member of his staff goes his own way without dynamic connections with his fellows or the aims and purposes of the school as a whole. Democratic supervision implies that a supervisor will strive, by virtue of his position, to organize life within his school so that all factors in the situation—supervisor, teachers, pupils, and even janitors—will carry on their functions coöperatively and in such wise that each can define and perform his duty with an increasing appreciation of its bearing upon the functions of others."

The supervisor is an educational leader, is a partner in the common task. He engages with his teachers in the preparation of teaching projects of all approvable sorts. Hence, he is partly responsible for the outcomes. He is not a judge of his fellows; his judgments are restricted to procedures and to pupils and the like. More important than his judgments of any kind, however, are his efforts to engage with his staff in new and better undertakings.

P. W. L. C.

*Economic Theory and Correct Occupational Distribution*, by HAROLD F. CLARK. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, v + 176 pages, \$2.00.

In the exact sciences, especially physics and chemistry, every extension of knowledge and its refinement leads to more accurate control of conditions in which it is involved. Such control is more difficult to gain in biology and is vastly more difficult in the social sciences—psychology, sociology, and economics—because the variables are so many and so diverse that only by artificial laboratory techniques can investigators even approximate conditions analogous to those which are feasible for the more exact sciences. It may be doubted, however, if education can ever do

## BOOK REVIEWS

more than yearn for approximations to those of the social sciences which are themselves so very uncertain and inexact.

Nevertheless, in education and "in economics as in the other sciences we desire knowledge mainly as an instrument of control. Control means the alluring possibility of shaping the evolution of economic life to fit the developing purposes of our race." An examination of the possibilities for such control in the fields of education and economics and occupational distribution is here essayed by Dr. Clark.

After stating seventeen theses drawn from economic theory, the author discusses their validity and their significance, and proposes a planning commission of the ablest men of the community to determine and constantly to redetermine the number of people to be trained for any given occupation. The possibility is very exciting; but the impracticability of such social control in a democracy, except in time of war or pestilence, gives the proposals a somewhat bizarre quality to one who is accustomed to deal with a world of realities. Only if incorrect occupational distributions should threaten our social structure—and some day it may—will America countenance such a planning commission. But all earnest educators will want to read Dr. Clark's book.

P. W. L. C.

*Human Learning*, by EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. New York: The Century Company, 1931, 202 pages, \$2.25.

In this volume are printed the Messenger lectures given at Cornell University, 1928-1929. Ten of the twelve lectures deal with the nature of human learning and present significant experimental data; the other two discuss the evolution of learning and its future possibilities.

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*Basic Units for an Introductory Course in Vocational Guidance*, by twenty-five teachers of vocational guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

*The Story of English Literature*, by EDMUND K. BROADUS. New York: The Macmillan Company.

*Rome and the Romans*, by GRANT SHOWERMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company.

*The Age of Innocence*, by EDITH WHARTON (edited by Orton Lowe), New York: D. Appleton and Company Educational Department.

*Lives in the Making*, by HENRY NEWMANN. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

*Principles of Economics*, by ARTHUR L. FAUBEL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.

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*Western Prose and Poetry*, by RUFUS A. COLEMAN. New York: Harper and Brothers.

*The Expansion of Secondary Education*, Seventh Educational Yearbook of the International Institute, edited by I. L. KANDEL. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.



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